

$^{14}\text{C}$  u okolišu

$^{14}\text{C}$  v okolju

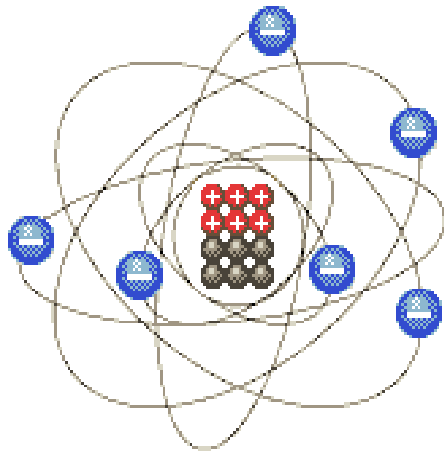
$^{14}\text{C}$  in environment

Ines KRAJCAR BRONIĆ i Jadranka BAREŠIĆ

[krajcar@irb.hr](mailto:krajcar@irb.hr)

- $^{14}\text{C}$  metoda – uvod, ciklus ugljika, produkcija  $^{14}\text{C}$
- Raspodjela ugljika u prirodi (atmosfera)
- Određivanje starosti
- Veličine i jedinice
- Procjena doze
- Mjerne tehnike određivanja  $^{14}\text{C}$
- Monitoring  $^{14}\text{C}$  u okolini NE
- Monitoring u okolini NEK

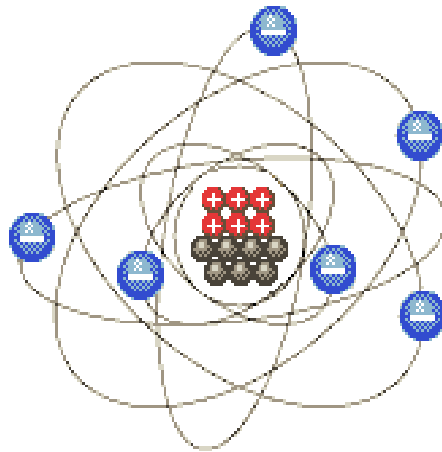
# Carbon isotopes



$^{12}\text{C}$

98.89 %

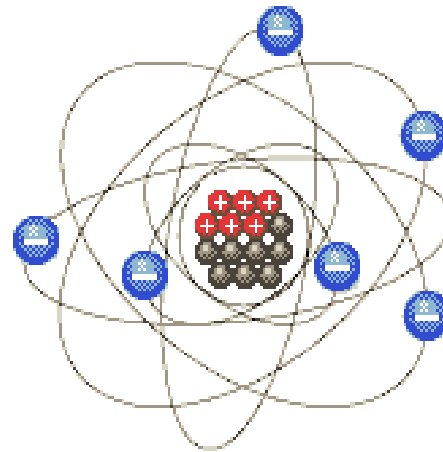
$p = n = 6$



$^{13}\text{C}$

1.11 %

$n = 7$



$^{14}\text{C}$

$10^{-10}$  %

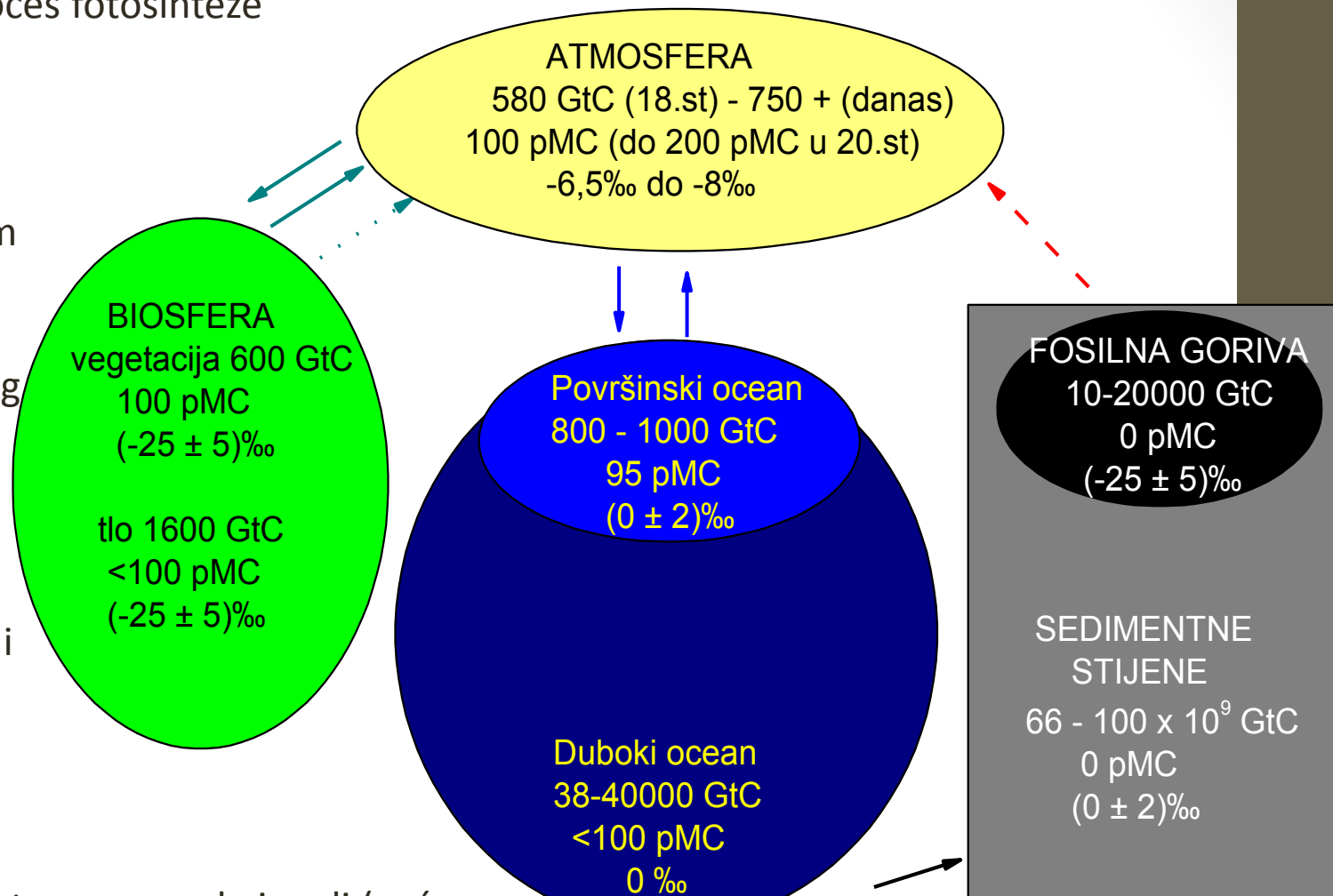
$n = 8$

$T_{1/2} = 5730 \text{ y}$

U atmosferi - uglavnom kao CO<sub>2</sub>, 0,03 (0,04)%  
vol. - važna uloga za održavanje života na Zemlji -  
koriste biljke za proces fotosinteze

Vraća se u  
atmosferu disanjem  
biljaka i životinja,  
raspadanjem  
biljnog i životinjskog  
tkiva, spaljivanjem  
organskog  
materijala,  
oslobađanjem iz  
tople morske vode i  
vulkanskim  
erupcijama.

CO<sub>2</sub> se otapa u morskoj vodi (veća  
topivost u hladnijoj vodi), a i u vodi  
koja prolazi kroz tlo, stvarajući  
ugličnu kiselinu, koja može otapati  
vapnenačke stijene.



Izgaranjem fosilnih goriva oslobađa  
se ugljik koji je milijunima godina  
bio spremljen u litosferi. [ 4 ]

# Discovery of $^{14}\text{C}$

## Obituary

### Martin Kamen

Scientist, co-discoverer of the isotope that gave archaeology carbon-dating, and innocent victim of America's Communist witchhunts

(Pearce Wright , [The Guardian](#), Monday 9 September 2002)

The American scientist Professor Martin Kamen was the co-discoverer of the radioactive isotope carbon-14. The finding transformed biochemistry as a tracer following chemical processes in plants, while its use in the carbon dating of fossils and ancient artefacts between 500 and 50,000 years old revolutionised archaeology.

## MARTIN DAVID KAMEN



27 AUGUST 1913 · 31 AUGUST 2002

Sam Ruben and Martin Kamen co-discovered the isotope carbon-14 on February 27, 1940, at the University of California Radiation Laboratory, Berkeley, when they bombarded graphite in the cyclotron in hopes of producing a radioactive isotope of carbon that could be used as a tracer in investigating chemical reactions in photosynthesis. Their experiment resulted in production of carbon-14.

Ruben S, Kamen MD (1940)  
Radioactive carbon of long-half life.  
Phys. Rev. 57: 549

Martin Kamen, has been named one of two winners of this year's (1995) Enrico Fermi Award. The 82-year old Kamen is joined by 83-year-old physicist Ugo Fano, who won for his pioneering contributions to the theory of atomic and radiation physics.

## Early History of Carbon-14

Discovery of this supremely important tracer was expected in the physical sense but not in the chemical sense.

Martin D. Kamen

When, how, and why was carbon-14 discovered? As T. S. Kuhn has remarked (1), discovery is seldom a single event that can be attributed wholly to a particular individual, time, or place. He notes that some discoveries, such as those of the neutrino, radio waves, and missing isotopes or elements, are predictable and present few problems, as far as establishment of priority is concerned. Others, such as the discoveries of oxygen, x-rays, and the electron, are unpredictable. These put the historian in a "bind" when he tries to decide when, how, who, and where the discovery was made. Much more rarely does he have a basis for an answer to the question "Why?"

I propose in this account of the "prenatal" history of carbon-14 to provide the answers to my leading questions (2). These make a story which is a fragment of the whole record. That record must be constructed by future historians who seek to probe the events of a period in which there has been an unparalleled impact of intellectual curiosity and scientific creativity on the structure of society.

The tremendous outburst of technology in the past half century, the result of the rise of nuclear science, has crowned man's quest for the philosopher's stone so successfully as to be hardly credible even to the most optimistic alchemist. Tracer methodology, an offspring of nuclear science, has provided essential support for the ever-widening and deepening knowledge of structure and function in biological systems, expressed as the dynamic science of molecular biology.

These developments have profound, but unknown, implications for the future of our social structures. They obviously bring with them an unexampled load of grist for the mills of cultural historians, social scientists,

and philosophers. Perhaps the novelists will dig into the record of these exciting times for fresh insights into the age-old drives of mankind.

Carbon-14, the long-lived carbon isotope, is the most important single tool made available by tracer methodology, because carbon occupies the central position in the chemistry of biological systems. Thus it plays, and will continue to play, an essential role in the elucidation of biochemical mechanisms, knowledge of which is essential in the further development of molecular biology. Obviously, the circumstances surrounding its discovery are valid objects of interest for the historian (3).

### Initial Phases, 1934-36

In the early 1930's, nuclear physics, immersed in the great traditions of the Cambridge school led by Ernest Rutherford, was concerned primarily with observations of processes associated with the scattering of elementary nuclear particles by various atomic nuclei. Reports in those times show painstaking determinations of range-energy relations for the fundamental projectiles (protons, deuterons, alpha particles). The energies used did not exceed approximately 10 Mev, because of the limitations set by the relatively primitive accelerators and by the radiation characteristics of the naturally radioactive materials that were available. The rationale for such work, which often involved tedious attention to detail and much labor, was that if enough precise facts were put together, accurate binding energies for nuclei could be deduced. From these energies, it was reasoned, there could be derived a solid basis for further attack on the problem of the nature of nuclear forces.

By 1933, such data—binding energies, angular distributions in scattering experiments, and so on—had demonstrated that nuclear forces could be described as analogous to saturation exchange forces like those postulated previously for chemical bonding. The so-called "alpha-particle" model of the nucleus already contained the seeds of what was to be the full-fledged modern "shell" theory of nuclei, to be developed later by Maria Mayer, Eugene Feenberg, and others.

As to my part in this, I was a young, eager student and had just begun doctoral research, using the Wilson cloud chamber to study the angular distribution of neutrons scattered in collisions with protons and other nuclei. These researches were part of a general program initiated in the laboratory of W. D. Harkins in the chemistry department at the University of Chicago (4). My decision to work in this field was largely a result of the influence of D. M. Gans, Harkins' associate and an assistant professor in the department (5).

Most significantly for this history, similar work was also under way at Yale, where F. N. D. Kurie, investigating neutron-induced disintegration of light elements, had obtained certain anomalous results for the angular distributions of protons in collisions with neutrons. In 1934 he proposed a radical interpretation (6) of certain events he noted in the cloud chamber. When nitrogen was exposed to fast neutrons, for instance, he noted that in some cases the ejected nucleus produced a very long, thin track. This he ascribed to a proton, rather than to an alpha particle. Thus, he supposed that the usual reaction,  $N^{14}(n,He^4)B^{11}$ , was accompanied by a less frequent but readily observable reaction,  $N^{14}(n,H^1)C^{14}$ . (As far as I am aware, this is the first suggestion in the literature that  $C^{14}$  might exist.) Kurie also suggested, however, that the tracks he was observing might arise from  $H^2$ , or even  $H^3$ , and thus that the reactions  $N^{14}(n,H^2)C^{14}$  and  $N^{14}(n,H^3)C^{14}$  were also possibilities. In fact, he felt the reactions with emission of  $H^2$  and  $H^3$  were the more likely because they resulted in nuclei of known stability.

The author is professor of chemistry at the School of Science and Engineering, University of California, San Diego. This article is adapted from a paper which he presented at a meeting of the American Chemical Society in Los Angeles in April 1963, when he received the Society's 1963 Award for Nuclear Applications in Chemistry. This paper is also being printed in the May issue of the *Journal of Chemical Education*.



After discovery of radioactive carbon-14, Ruben and Kamen found that it had a half-life of about 5,700 years and that some of the nitrogen in the atmosphere was turned into carbon-14 when hit with cosmic rays. Thus, an equilibrium was reached, the newly formed carbon-14 replacing the carbon-14 that decayed, so that there was always a small amount in the atmosphere.

[Ruben S, Kamen MD \(1940\) Radioactive carbon of long-half life. Phys. Rev. 57: 549](#)

Ruben and Kamen had to abandon attempts to experiment with  $^{14}\text{C}$  in 1942.

Willard Libby, a chemist at the University of Chicago, experimented with carbon-14 further. Through a series of tests, he calculated the atom's half-life to be 5,568 years. He theorized that, by analyzing the amount of carbon-14 in plant matter, one could form a solid estimate of the item's age. Namely, he figured that plants would absorb some of this trace carbon-14 while they absorbed ordinary carbon in photosynthesis. Once the plant died, it couldn't absorb any more carbon of any kind, and the carbon-14 it contained would decay at its usual rate without being replaced. **By finding the concentration of carbon-14 left in the remains of a plant, you could calculate the amount of time since the plant had died.** He continued to refine the concept for the next decade, calculating the age of an ancient Egyptian barge using wood samples. The science of archaeology was revolutionized and, for his efforts, Libby received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for 1960.

Arnold, J.R., Libby, W.F: Age determinations by radiocarbon content: checks with samples of known ages.  
Science 110 (1949), p.678-680

## Nastajanje $^{14}\text{C}$ (produkcija)

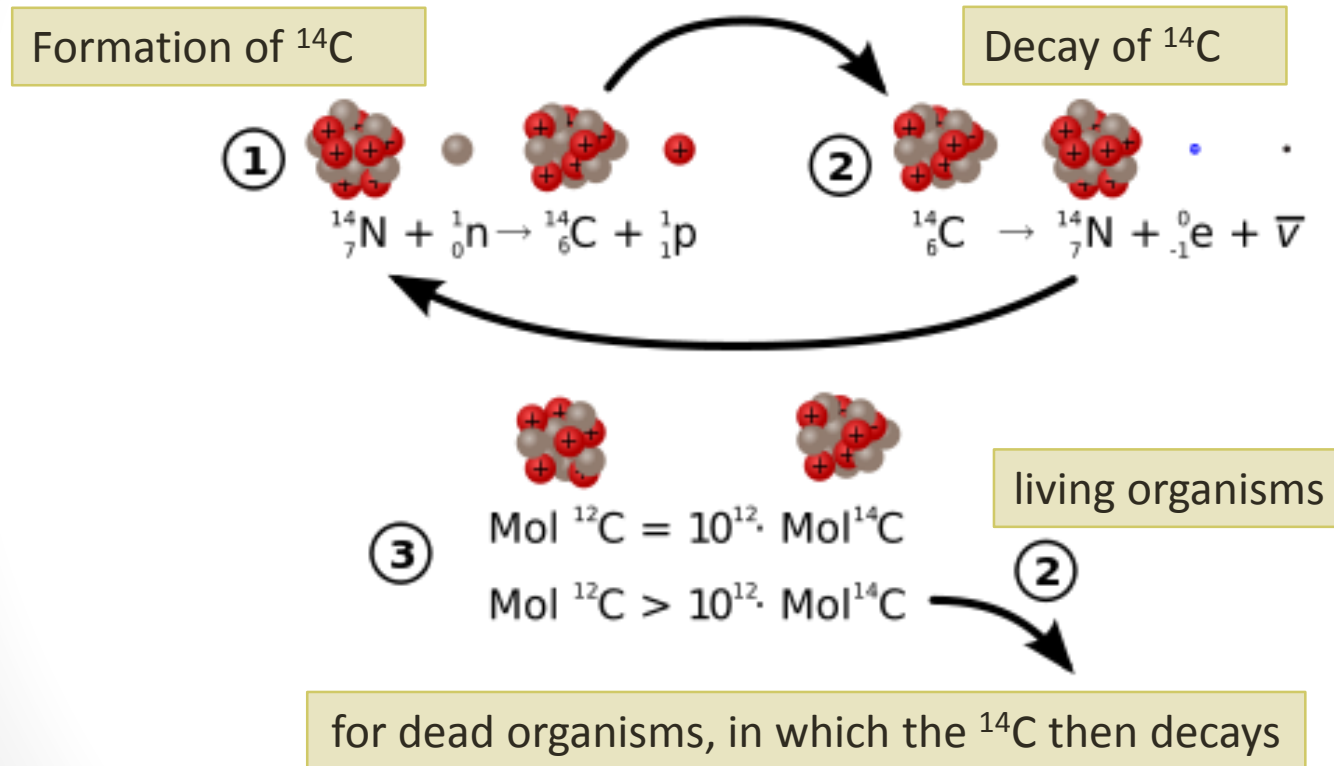
Kozmogeni i antropogeni izotop/radionuklid

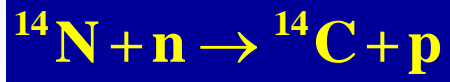
- Prirodno – interakcija neutrona iz kozmičkog zračenja s  $^{14}\text{N}$
- Antropogeno
  - „bomb”  $^{14}\text{C}$
  - nuklearne elektrane
  - drugi nuklearni objekti
- Fosilna goriva – razrjeđenje  $^{14}\text{C}$



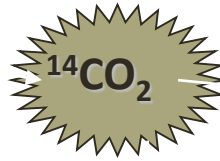
# Radiocarbon production

**Cosmogenic radionuclide** - the primary natural source of  $^{14}\text{C}$  on Earth is nuclear reaction between neutrons from cosmic rays with nitrogen in the atmosphere (The highest rate of  $^{14}\text{C}$  production takes place at altitudes of 9 to 15 km)





$\text{O}_2$

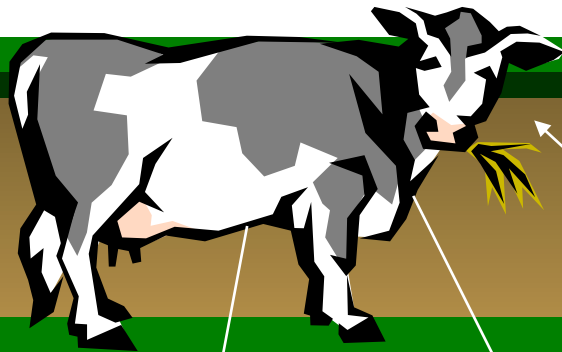


## Carbon on Earth

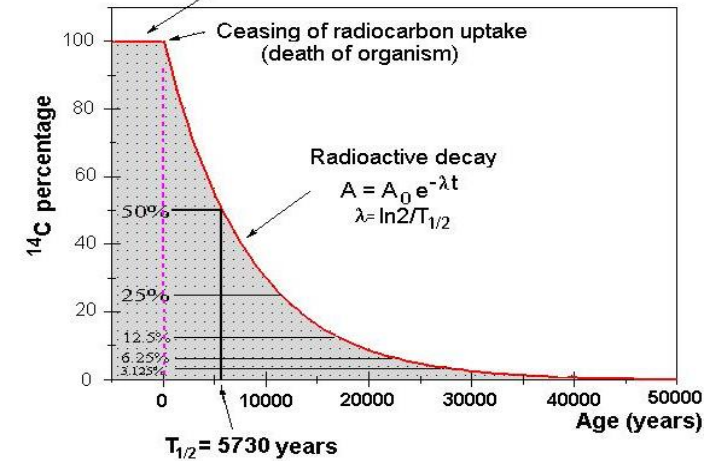
$^{12}\text{C}$ : 98.89 %

$^{13}\text{C}$ : 1.1 %

$^{14}\text{C}$ :  $1.18 \times 10^{-12}$  %



Decayed  $^{14}\text{C}$  balanced by its constant uptake



## Kozmogeni $^{14}\text{C}$

Produkcija 1.4 - 1.54 PBq/yr – nije jednolika zbog promjenjivog intenziteta kozmičkog zračenja, 11-godišnjeg sunčevog ciklusa, promjene zemljina magnetskog polja ...

U Zemljinoj atmosferi	oko 220 PBq „prirodnog“ $^{14}\text{C}$
Terestrijalni $^{14}\text{C}$	oko 10000 PBq

## bomb $^{14}\text{C}$

produced by interactions of neutrons emitted in atmospheric nuclear explosions

input 213 – 315 PBq,

doubled atmospheric specific activity of  $^{14}\text{C}$  in 1963,

since then – decrease

# $^{14}\text{C}$ in nuclear power plants

Minor  $^{14}\text{C}$  quantities enter the atmosphere due to nuclear power plants operation

Carbon-14 can be produced by other reactions with neutrons:

- $^{13}\text{C}(\text{n},\gamma)^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{17}\text{O}(\text{n},\alpha)^{14}\text{C}$  with thermal neutrons
- $^{15}\text{N}(\text{n},\text{d})^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{16}\text{O}(\text{n},^3\text{He})^{14}\text{C}$  with fast neutrons

The most notable routes for  $^{14}\text{C}$  production by thermal neutron irradiation of targets (e.g., in a nuclear reactor) are:.

Parent isotope	Natural abundance, %	Cross section for thermal neutron capture	Reaction
$^{14}\text{N}$	99.634	1.81	$^{14}\text{N}(\text{n},\text{p})^{14}\text{C}$
$^{13}\text{C}$	1.103	0.0009	$^{13}\text{C}(\text{n},\gamma)^{14}\text{C}$
$^{17}\text{O}$	0.0383	0.235	$^{17}\text{O}(\text{n},\alpha)^{14}\text{C}$

In PWR  $^{14}\text{C}$  is produced by neutron activation with oxygen  $^{17}\text{O}$  or nitrogen  $^{14}\text{N}$  in fuel, moderator and coolant of the reactor. It is emitted into the environment in the form of  $\text{CO}_2$ , which **enters the natural carbon cycle** in the vicinity of power stations. Through food chain (ingestion) it can contribute to the additional irradiation of the population, resulting thus to the enhancement of the effective dose of the population.

e.g.: Man-Sun Zim and F Caron, Progress in Nuclear Energy 48 (2006) 2-36

## Production rate in nuclear facilities

0.3 PBq/yr – estimated global production  
(Yim, Progress in Nucl Energy 2006)

### gaseous releases

BWR 95% as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ , 2.5 % as  $^{14}\text{CO}$ , 2.5 % hydrocarbons

PWR – about 80% as  $^{14}\text{CH}_4$ , 20% as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ ;

Estimated rate of gaseous release 0.5 – 1.9 TBq/GW<sub>yr</sub>;

fuel reprocessing plants – gaseous release mostly as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ , about 15 TBq/yr;

### liquid releases

chemical form of carbonates and various organic compound

relative quantities unknown (IRSN 2010) – others say: mainly as DIC;

example of Sellafield (UK) :

gaseous release 1.5 - 12 E12 Bq,

liquid : app. 8 E12 Bq

NEK in 2013: gas 1.3 E11 Bq

liquid: 1.7 E9 Bq (REMONT)

NEK in 2014: gas 2.3 E10 Bq

0.8 E9 Bq

## various other sources

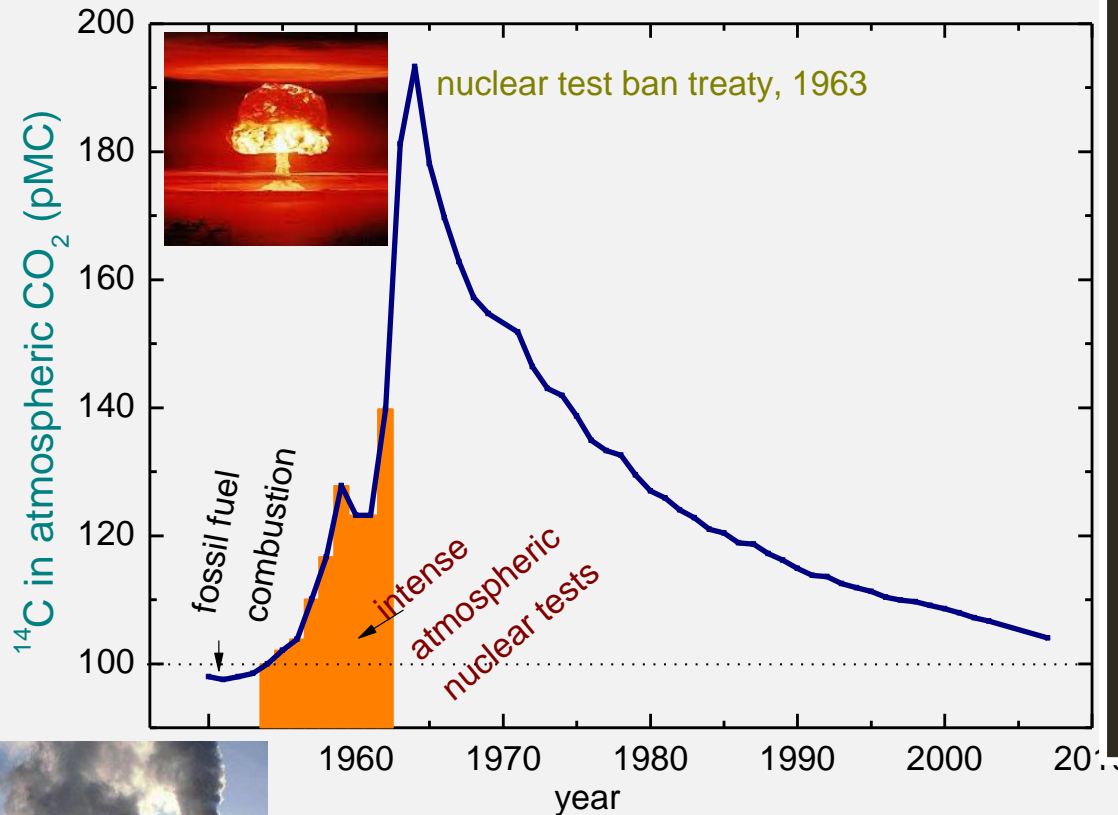
(medical and pharmaceutical - labelling, industrial) – annual production in the world estimated to  $5 \times 10^{13}$  Bq in 1978,  $10 \times 10^{13}$  Bq in 1987 (all released as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ )

## fossil fuels

»Suess effect«, increase of  $\text{pCO}_2$  in the atmosphere, decrease  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$



# Anthropogenic $^{14}\text{C}$

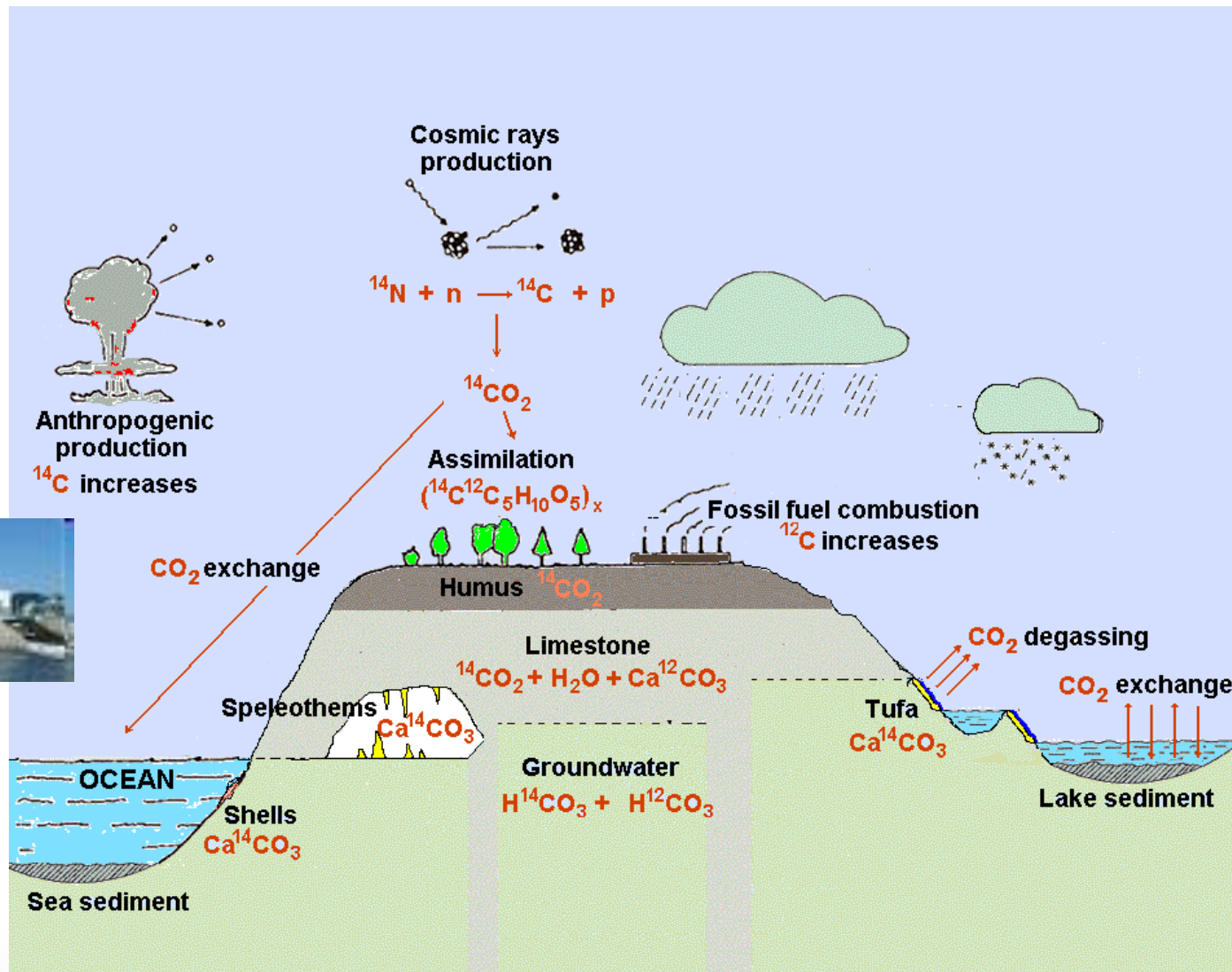


Anthropogenic activities disturbed the natural distribution of  $^{14}\text{C}$  in the atmosphere through fossil fuel combustion (increasing of  $^{12}\text{C}$  compared to  $^{14}\text{C}$ ) and atmospheric bomb tests (doubling the natural atmospheric  $^{14}\text{C}$  activity in 1960-ties).

The „bomb-peak“ has served as an invaluable tracer to get insight into the global carbon cycle on the decadal time scale.



# Distribution of $^{14}\text{C}$

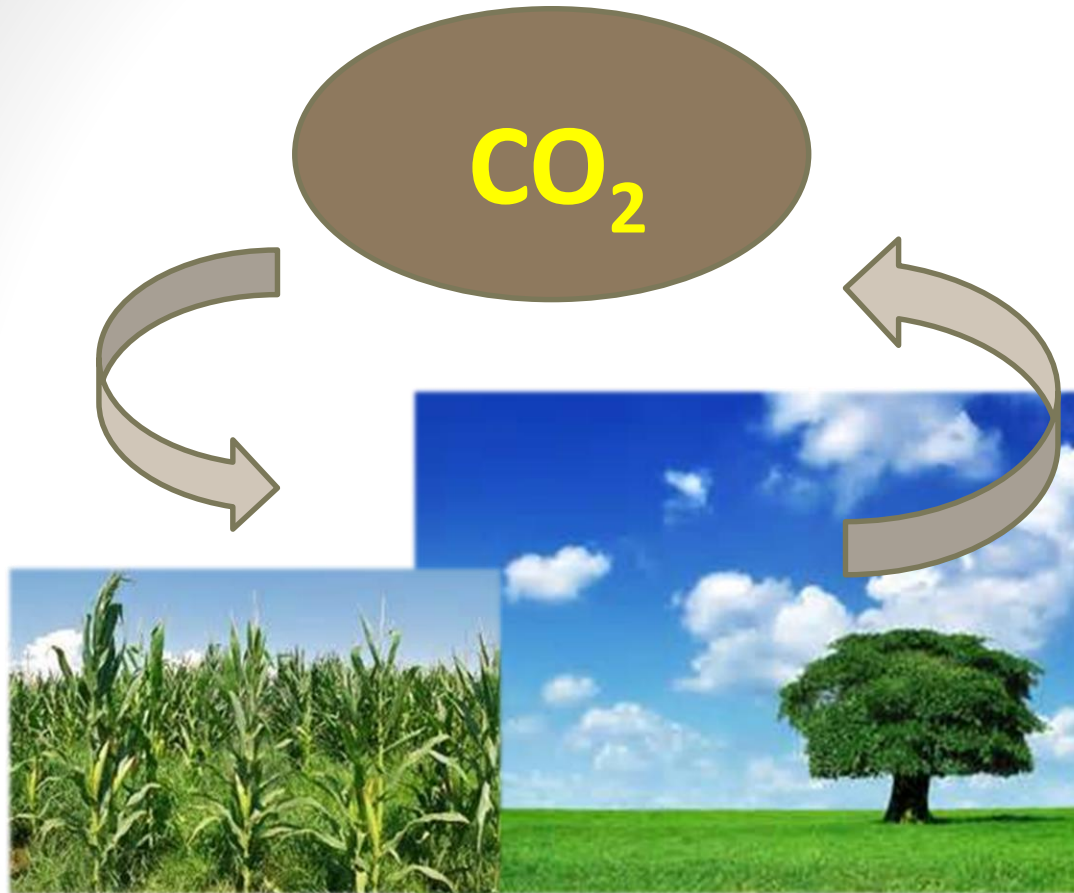


# Applications of $^{14}\text{C}$

- **Dating (determination of age) of organic samples** (wood, grains, leaves/plants, seed, charcoal, leather, textile, linen, bones, teeth, ivory, parchment, paper, antler and horn, peat, soil, organic sediment, dissolved organic carbon...)
- **Dating of secondary carbonates** (inorganic lake sediment, speleothemes, tufa, corals, mollusks, algal rims, dissolved inorganic carbon in water)
- **Carbon cycle in nature** (including atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ )
- **Environmental monitoring** (nuclear facilities)
- Oceanology, climatology
- Forensic science
- Medical biochemical, pharmacological applications
- Determination of biofuel fraction

## Carbon cycle - atmosphere

# Carbon cycle



All carbon isotopes  
take part

$^{12}\text{C}$

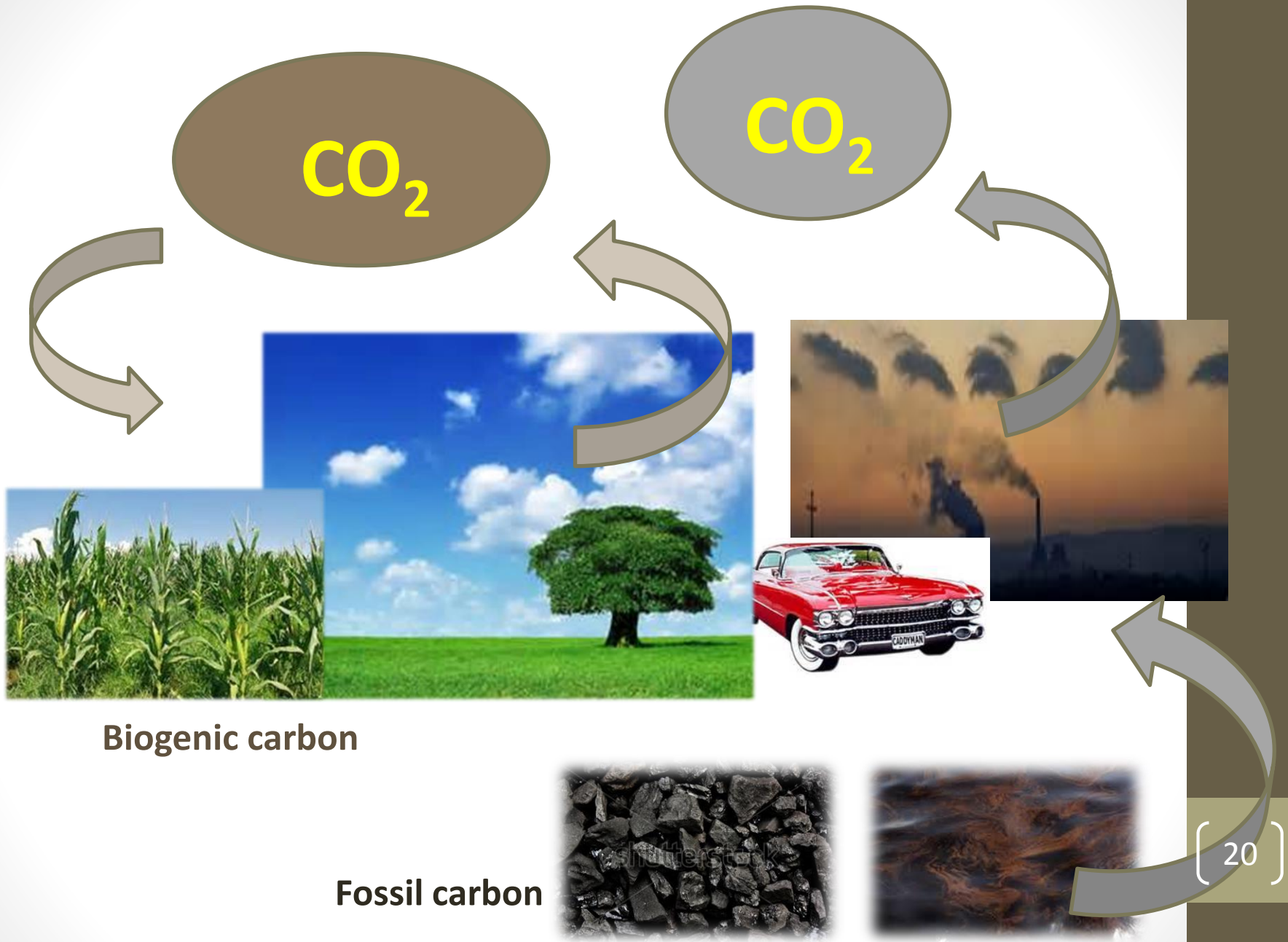
$^{13}\text{C}$

$^{14}\text{C}$

**Biogenic carbon**

the environmental carbon cycle – carbon is assimilated by terrestrial and aquatic plants in photosynthesis and transferred via the food chain to man.







# Carbon isotope fingerprint

## Atmosphere

$a^{14}\text{C} = 100 \text{ pMC}$

$\delta^{13}\text{C} = -8 \text{ ‰}$

$\text{CO}_2$

$\text{CO}_2$



Biogenic carbon

## Plants (biosphere)

$a^{14}\text{C} = 100 \text{ pMC}$

$\delta^{13}\text{C} = -25 \text{ ‰} (-12 \text{ ‰})$

## Fossil carbon

$a^{14}\text{C} = 0 \text{ pMC}$

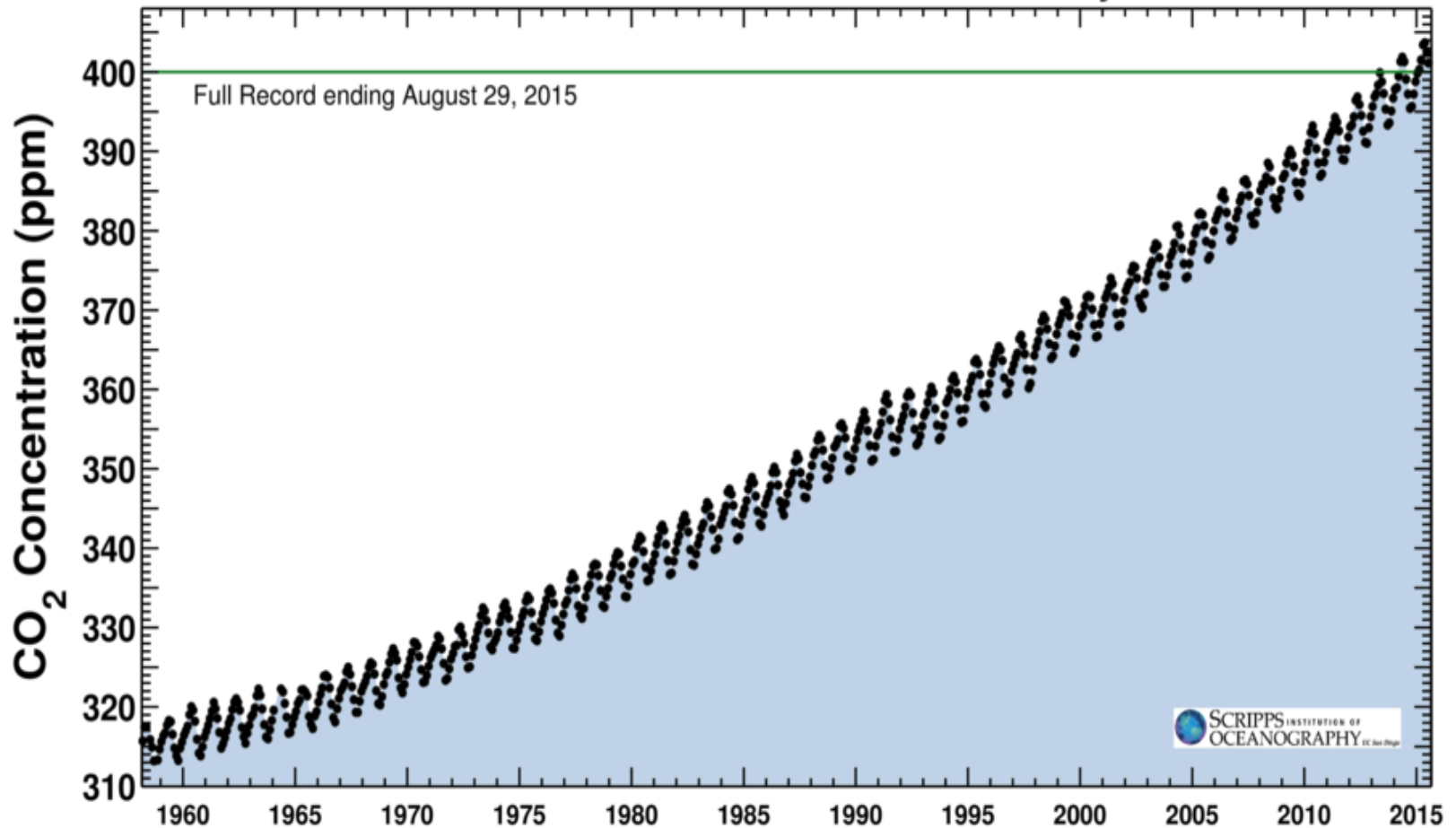
$\delta^{13}\text{C} = -25 \text{ ‰}$



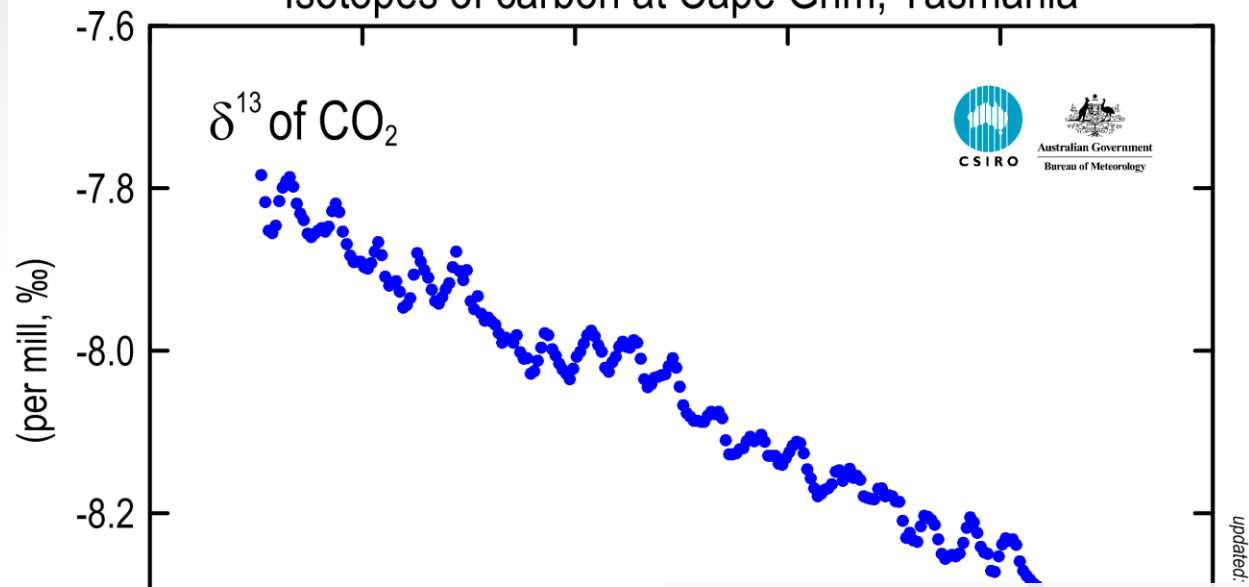
Latest CO<sub>2</sub> reading  
August 29, 2015

398.07 ppm

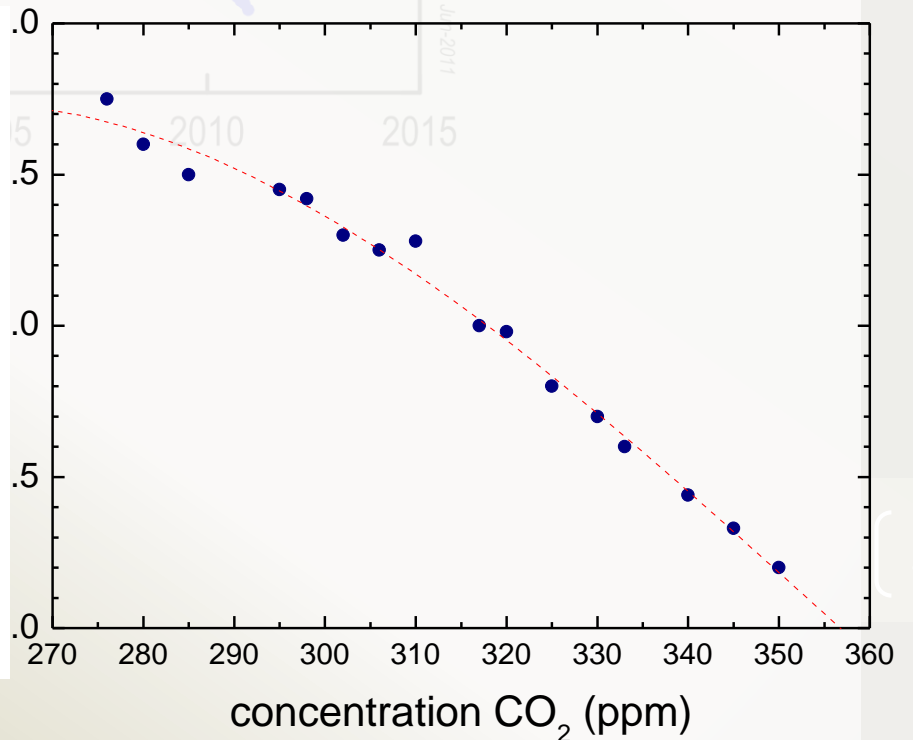
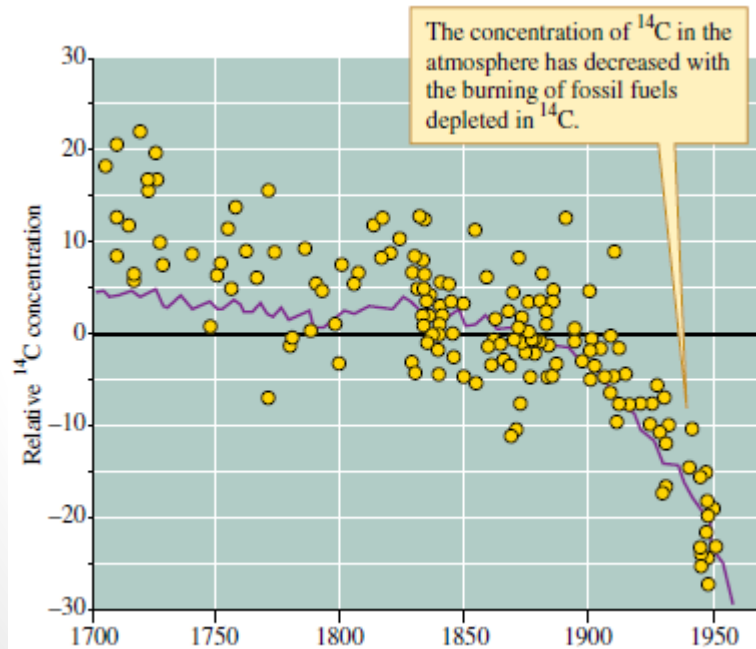
Carbon dioxide concentration at Mauna Loa Observatory



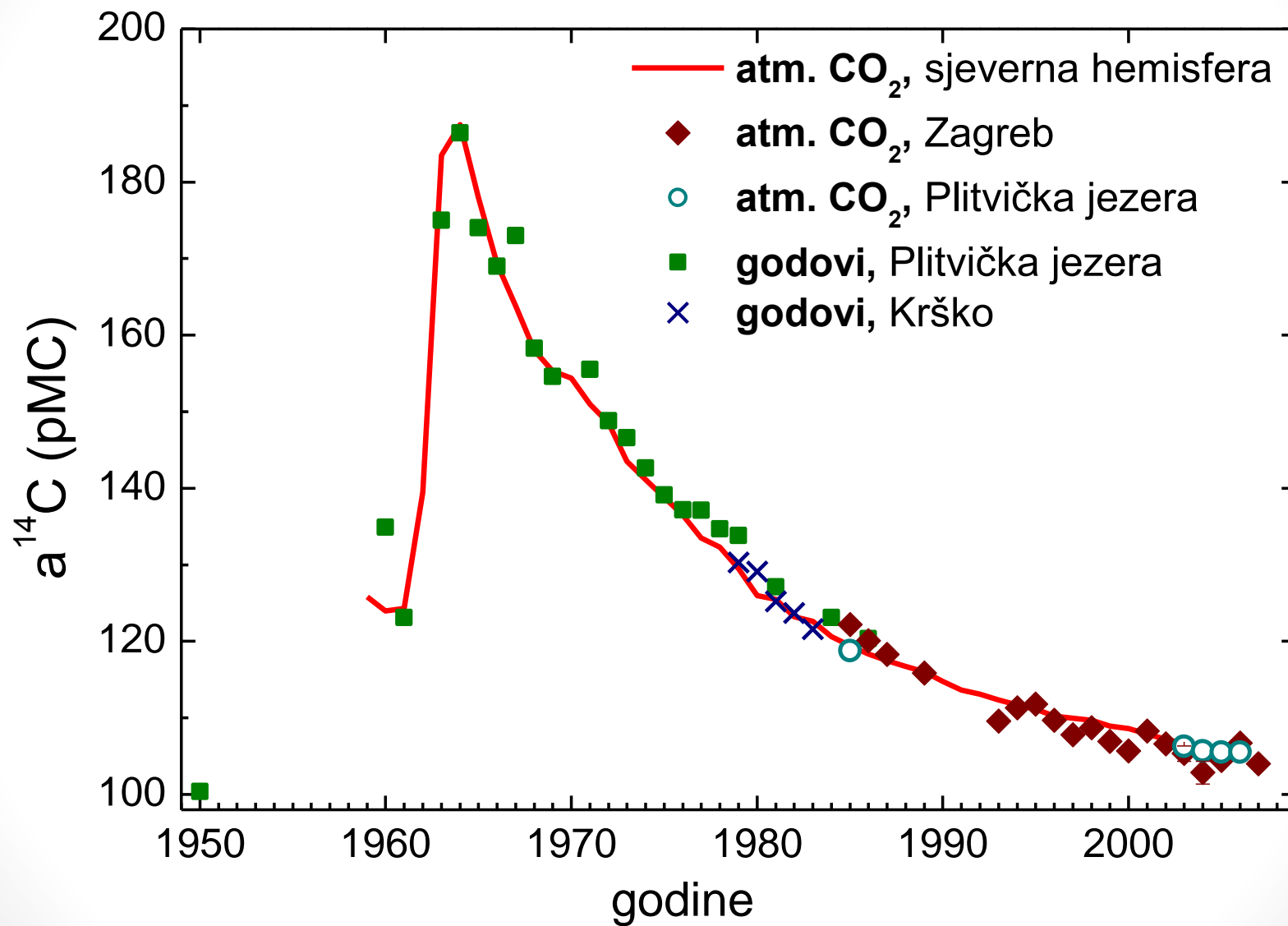
# Isotopes of carbon at Cape Grim, Tasmania



updated: 10-2011

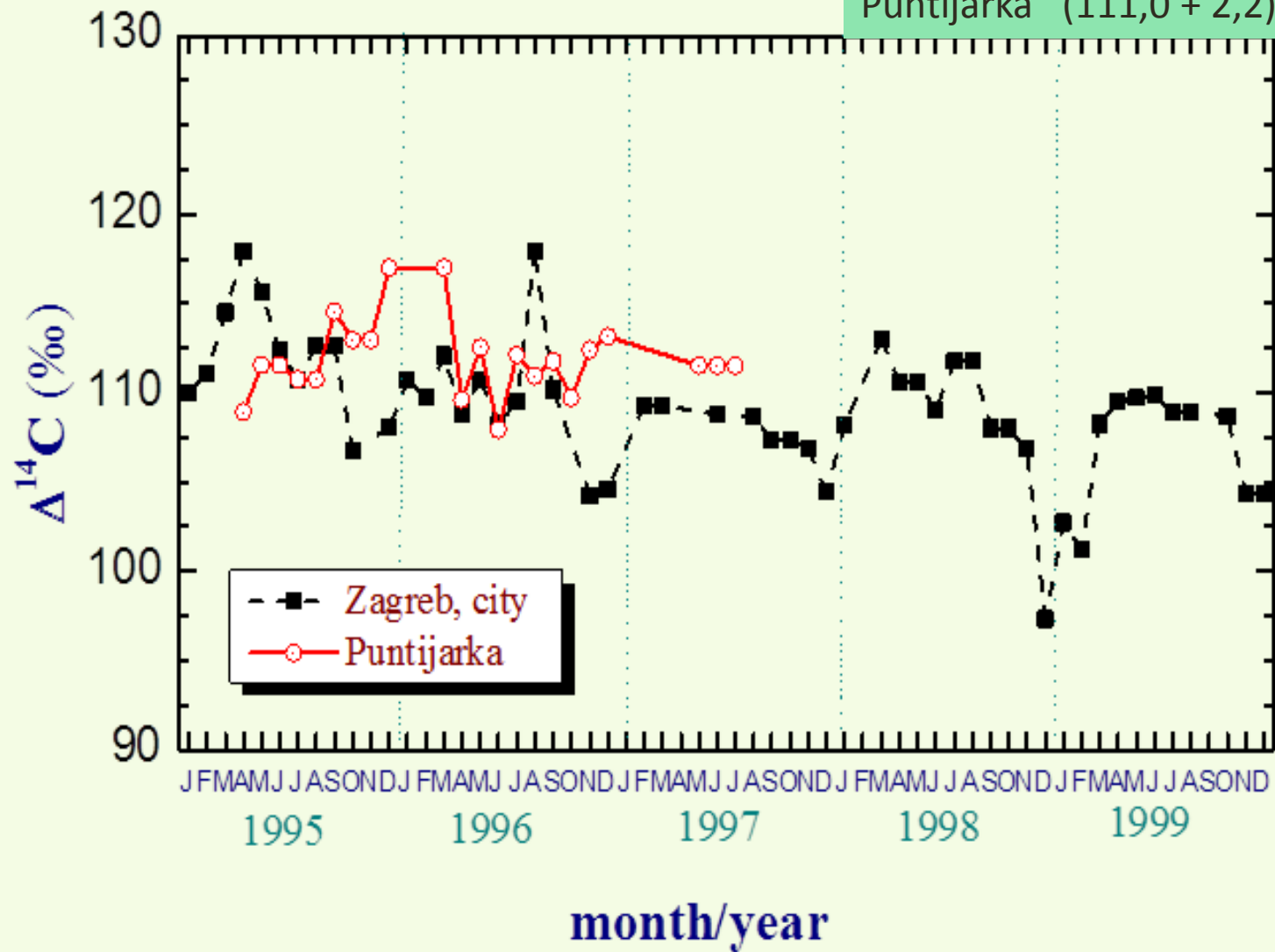


## $^{14}\text{C}$ aktivnost atmosferskog $\text{CO}_2$ - Hrvatska

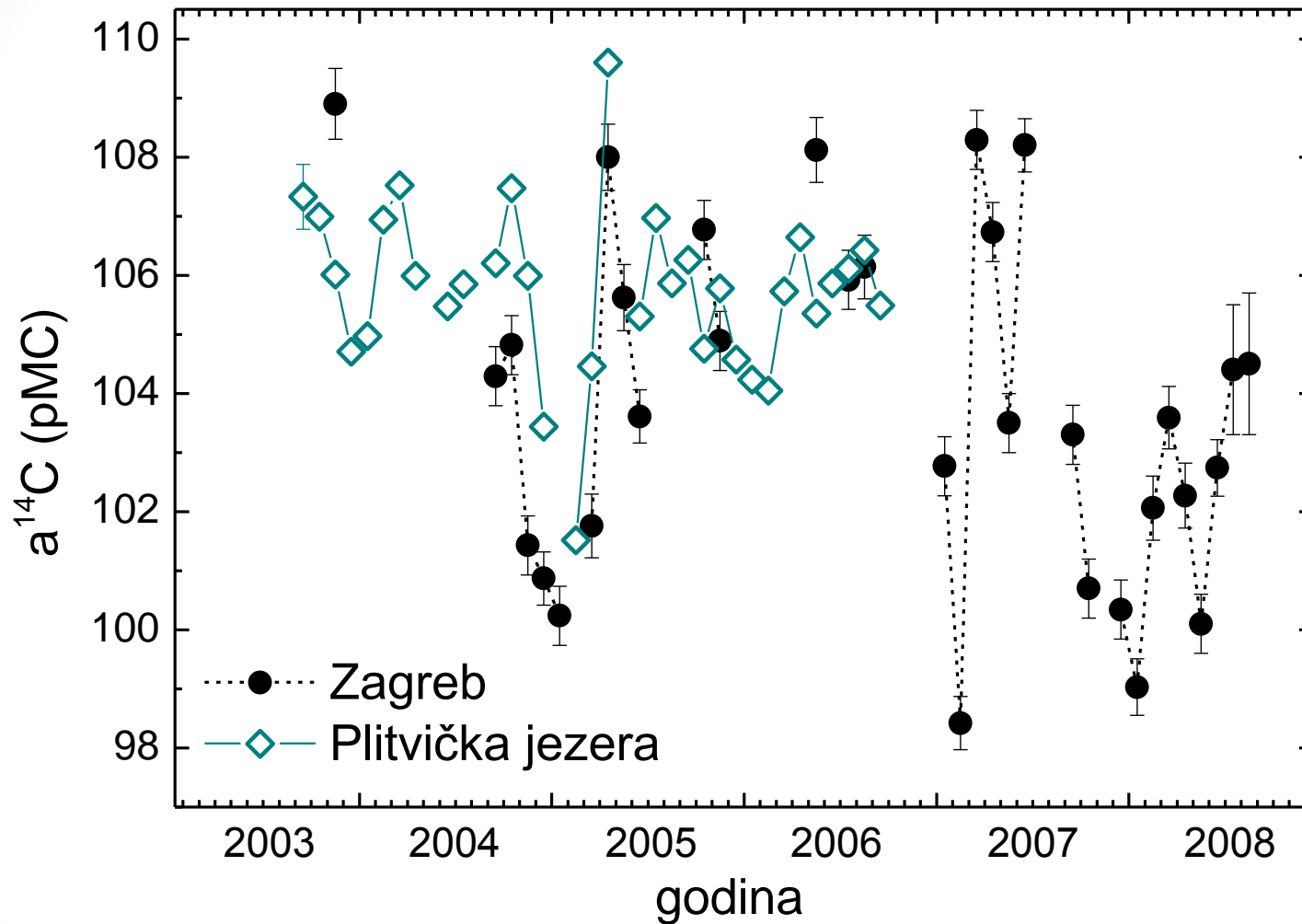


## $^{14}\text{C}$ u urbanim središtima (1)

Zagreb (110,0 + 3,4) pMC  
Puntijarka (111,0 + 2,2) pMC

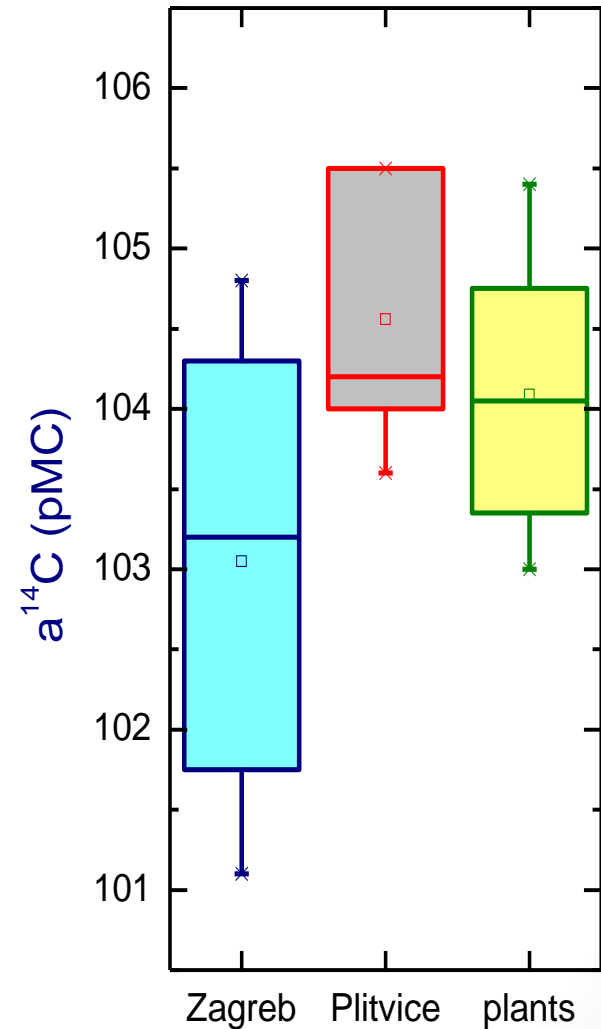
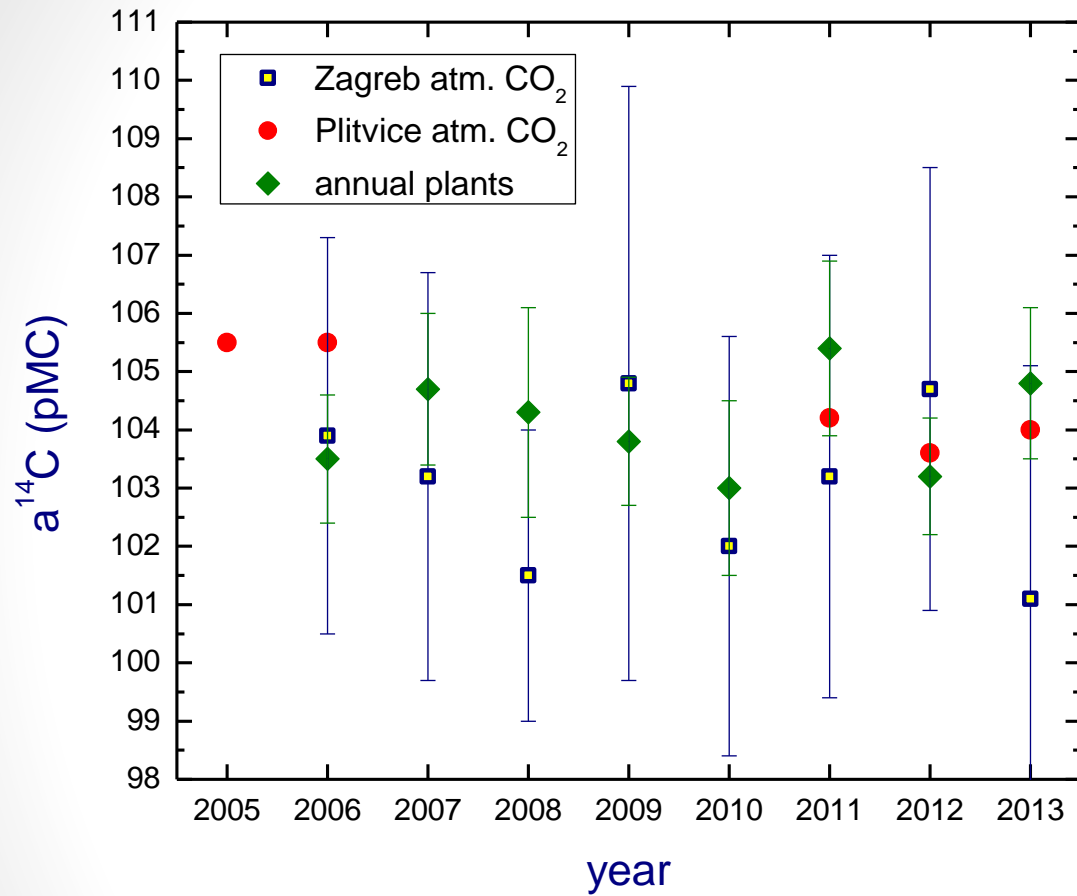


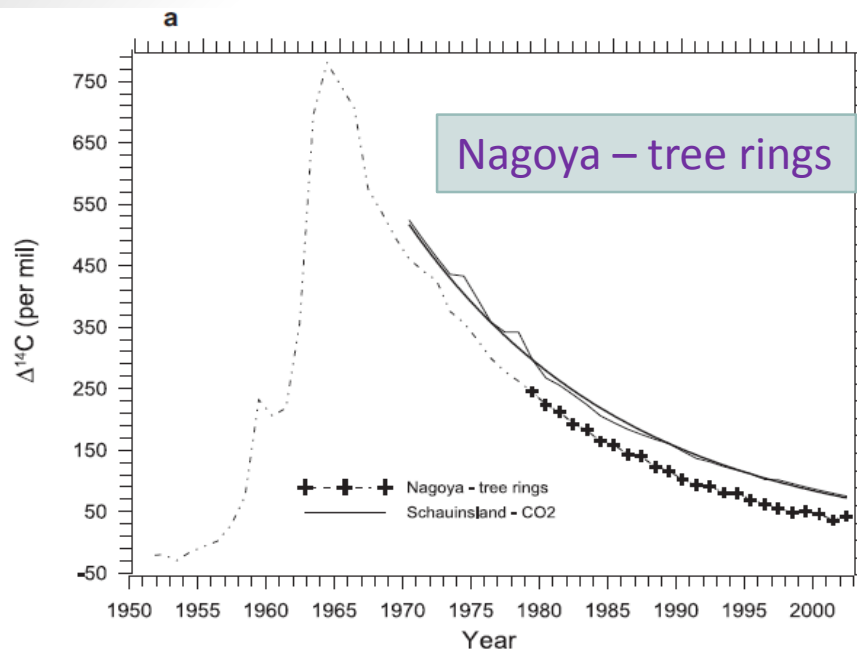
## $^{14}\text{C}$ u urbanim središtima (2)



Zagreb (104,1 + 2,9) pMC  
Plitvička j. (105,7 + 1,5) pMC

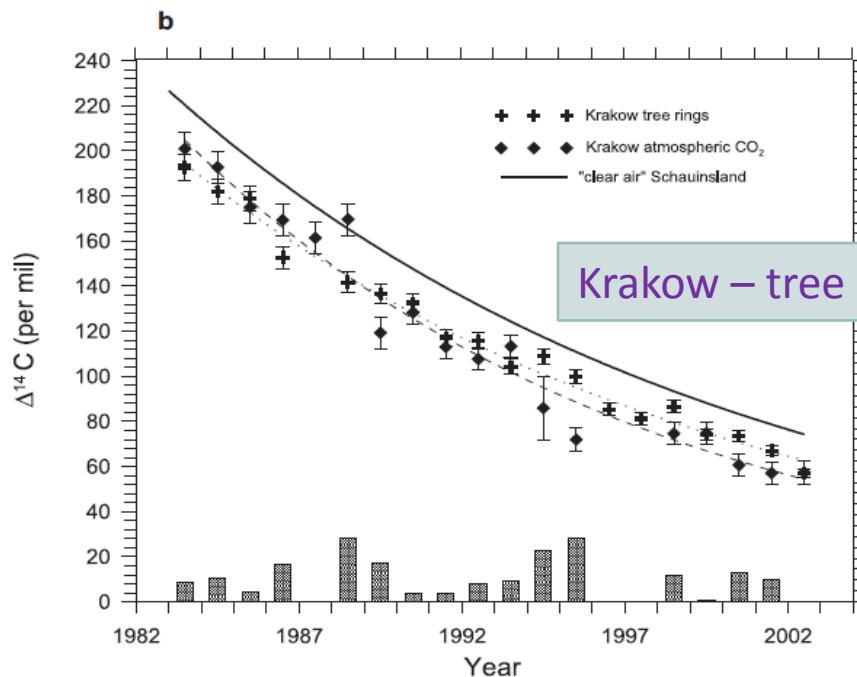






Toyoizumi (2001, Japan) measured significant difference between plants in mountain and country sites (108 – 110 pMC) and those in the cities, especially near roads with heavy traffic (<100 pMC to 104 pMC)

*Fig. 2a) Radiocarbon concentration in tree rings from Nagoya, central Japan. The solid line represents annual average values of radiocarbon concentration measured in "clean air" at Schauinsland station (Levin and Kromer, 1997). Dotted line presents radiocarbon concentration in Nagoya for the period 1951-1978 (author's unpublished data).*

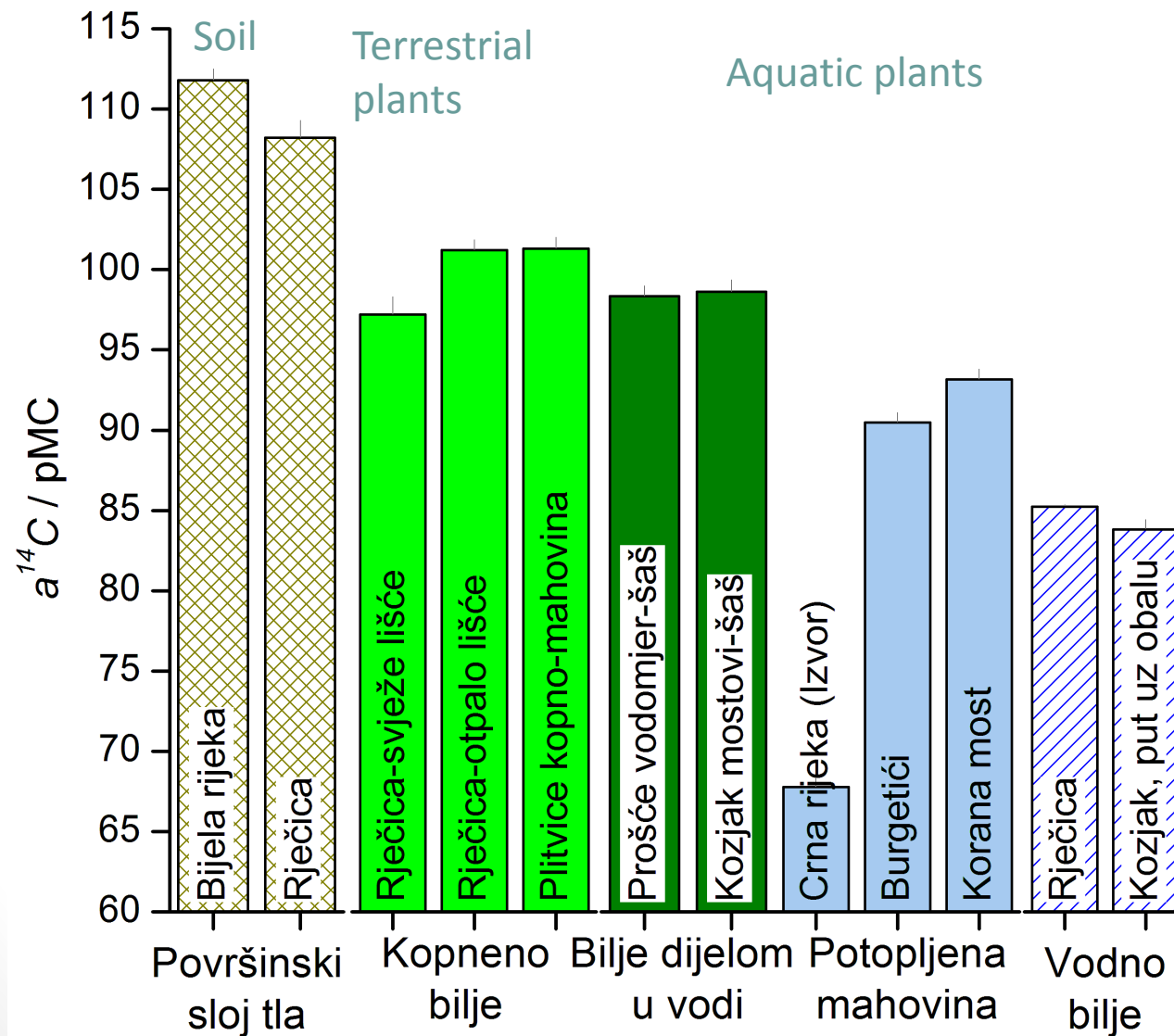


A Rakowski, T Kuc, T Nakamura, A Pazdur: Radiocarbon concentration in urban area, Geochronometria 24 (2005)

### Krakow – tree rings and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>

*Fig. 2b) Radiocarbon concentration in tree rings samples and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> collected at Kraków, Southern Poland. To the observed data were fitted exponential functions. Solid line presents radiocarbon concentration in "clean air" at Schauinsland station derived from measurement of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Levin and Kromer, 1997). All atmospheric data represent mean value for the period of April to September corrected by  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -25\text{‰}$ .*

# $^{14}\text{C}$ activity in soil, terrestrial and aquatic plants collected in the Plitvice Lakes area



# **Veličine i jedinice**

Aktivnost

Bq

Koncentracija aktivnosti

Masena – po kg svježe tvari (FreshWeight – FW)

Bq/kgFW

Masena – po kg suhe tvari (Dry weight – DW)

Bq/kgDW

Volumna – po m<sup>3</sup>, po L

Bq/m<sup>3</sup>, Bq/L

**Specifična aktivnost  $A_s$  – po jedinici mase tog elementa! Bq/kgC**

Relativna specifična aktivnost  $^{14}\text{C}$

$a^{14}\text{C} = A_s \text{ uzorak} / A_s \text{ standard}$

[pMC = percent Modern Carbon]

$F^{14}\text{C} = A_s \text{ uzorak} / A_s \text{ standard}$

[bezdimenzijska veličina]

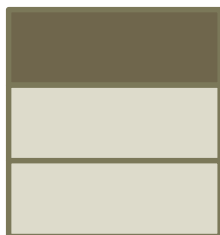
$A_s \text{ standard} = 226 \text{ Bq/kgC}$

210 Bq/kgC



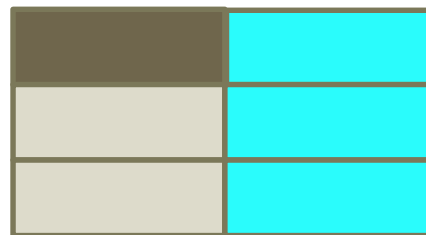
1 kgC

$210/3 = 70 \text{ Bq/kgDW}$



1 kgC u 3 kg DW  
0.330 kgC/kgDW

$70/2 = 35 \text{ Bq/kgFW}$



1 kgC u 6 kgFW  
0.17 kgC/kgFW

## Neki primjeri udjela ugljika

	Udio ugljika gC / kgFW		Udio C gC/kgDW	Ref.
Lisnato povrće	18 - 65	30	380	IAEA TRS 472 IAEA TECDOC1616
voće	31 - 100	62	410	IAEA TRS 472
žitarice	360 - 430	390	440	IAEA TRS 472
Meso razno	110 - 550	220		IAEA TRS 472
riba		117	410	TRS 472
	103 - 140			IRSN-14C
	100 - 160	120		TECDOC 1616
čovjek		230		



## Konverzija specifične aktivnosti $^{14}\text{C}$ u koncentracije aktivnosti

$$100 \text{ pMC} = 226 \text{ Bq/kgC}$$

Zrak		42 mBq/m <sup>3</sup> zraka
Voda	250 mg/L $\text{HCO}_3$	11,3 Bq/m <sup>3</sup> vode
Voće	60 gC/kgFW	13,56 Bq/kgFW
Riba	120 gC/kgFW	27,2 Bq/kgFW
Uz udio C u DW 400 gC/kgDW		90,4 Bq/kgDW

There are a number of hypotheses concerning the rates of uptake and elimination of **radiocesium** in **fish**. The level of radioactive concentration of aquatic biota is commonly defined in terms of a **concentration factor** ( $R_c$ ) as follows,

$$R_c = \frac{\text{Activity per kg of aquatic biota (wet wt)}}{\text{Activity per liter of water}} \text{ liter/kg.} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{bioaccumulation factor} = \frac{\text{nuclide conc in tissue FW [Bq/kgFW]}}{\text{nuclide conc in medium [Bq/L]}} \text{ [L/kg]}$$

Voda	250 mg/L $\text{HCO}_3$	11,3 Bq/m <sup>3</sup> vode
Riba	120 gC/kgFW	27,2 Bq/kgFW

Ista spec akt <sup>14</sup>C!

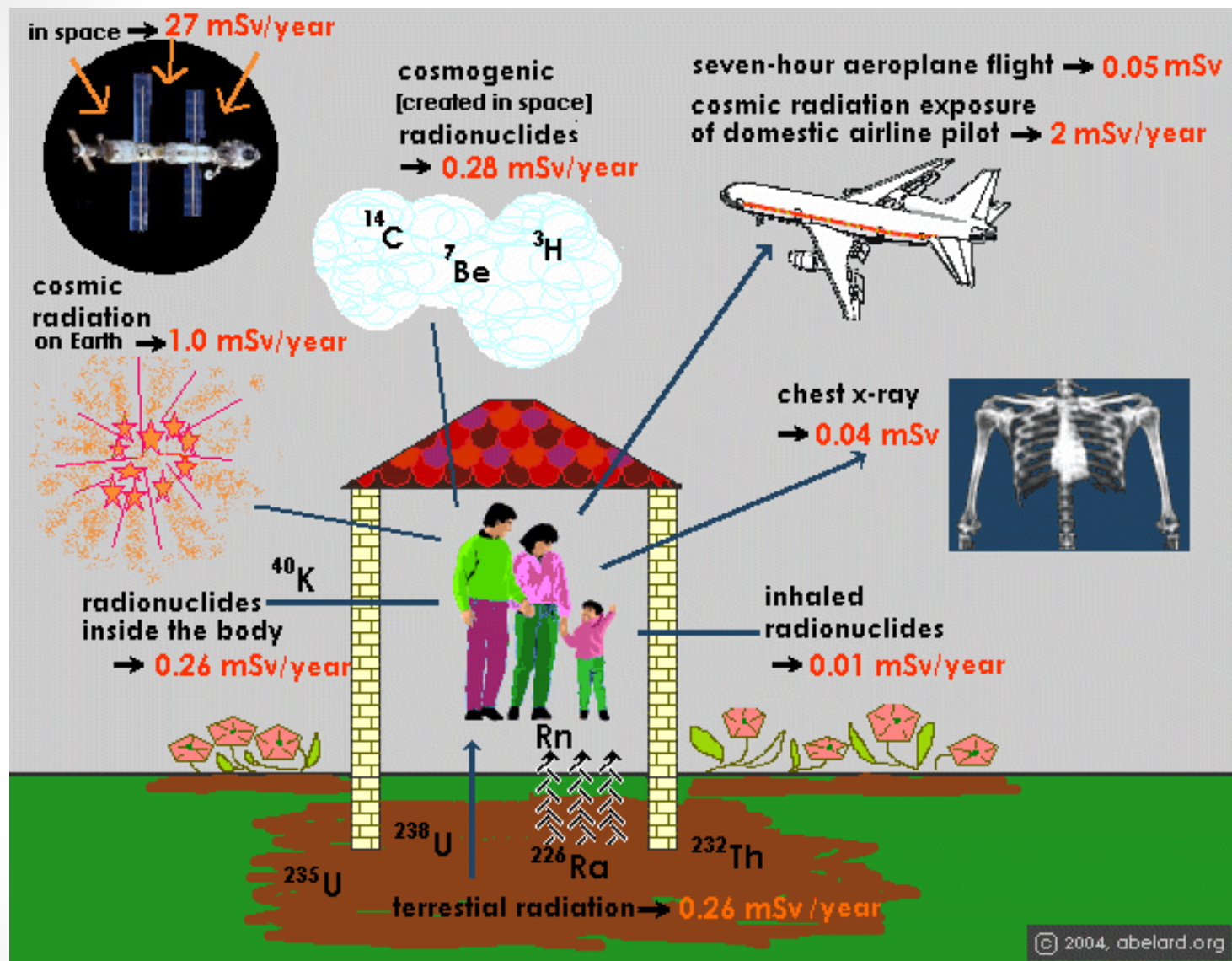
$$\text{bioacc f (Fish)} = \frac{27,2 \text{ [Bq/kgFW]}}{11,3 \text{ E-3 [Bq/L]}} = 2407 \text{ [L/kg]}$$

## **bioaccumulation factor for fish**

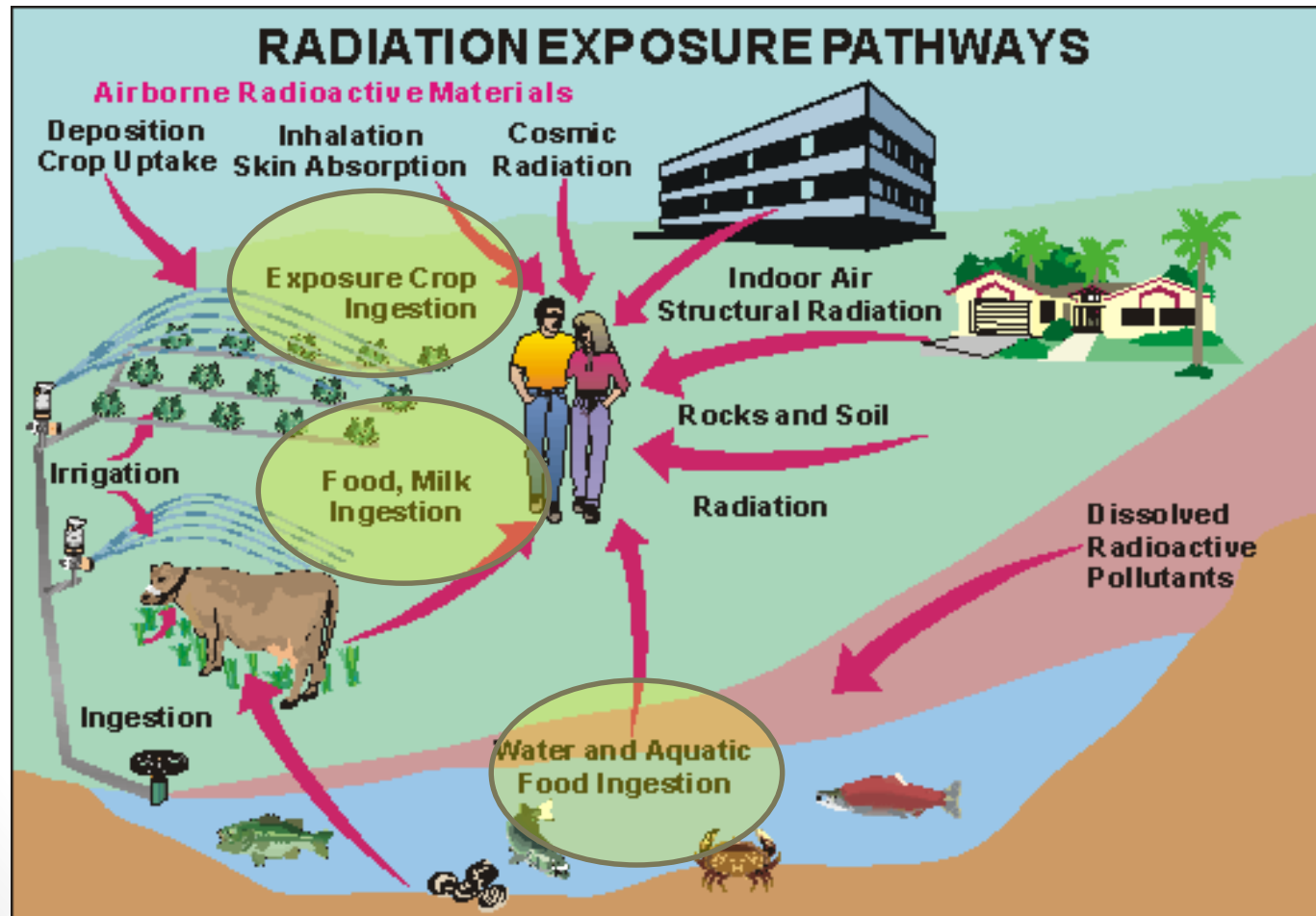
C 50000 (od 5000 do 50000) L/kg fish	fresh water
C 2000 (od 2000 do 3000) L/kg fish	brakish water
C 4600 (Bq/kgFW)/(Bq/L water) range 1000 - 10000	
Baltic Sea 2400 l/kg	
1800 l/kg Swedish west coast	

# Radiobiološka važnost $^{14}\text{C}$

- Radiobiološka važnost  $^{14}\text{C}$ : - lako postane dio prehrambenog lanca, prvo preko primarne produkcije (fotosinteze); vrlo je mobilan u okolišu, prelazi iz jednog u drugi "rezervoar"; dugo  $T_{1/2}$
- efektivna doza od  $^{14}\text{C}$  je samo posljedica ingestije (odnosno. oko <1 % iz drugih izvora, kao inhalacija...) –  $^{14}\text{C}$  postaje opasan/rizičan po zdravlje samo ako je unešen u tijelo zbog niske energije emitirane  $\beta$  čestice, ponaša se jednako kao ostali ugljikovi izotopi kako u okolišu tako i u tijelu, brzo se prenosi u organe; of all radionuclides released in routine operation by the nuclear power industry,  $^{14}\text{C}$  is likely to produce the largest dose to man
- raspodjela  $^{14}\text{C}$  u tijelu je jednolika, i slične doze primaju svi organi i tkiva – critical organ for  $^{14}\text{C}$  is the whole body
- Izotopni sastav  $^{12}\text{C}$   $^{13}\text{C}$   $^{14}\text{C}$  ovisi o prehrani – »You are what you eat«
- uvijek treba usporediti s dozom na »clean-air« site, tj. na područjima na kojima nema utjecaja ispusta iz NE
- UNSCEAR estimates the radiation dose received by humans (per capita) from the naturally occurring  $^{14}\text{C}$  to 15  $\mu\text{Sv}$



assessment model of the dose should be "fit for purpose", ie., it should not exclude, or poorly represent, any process that is known or suspected of having an important influence on radionuclide behaviour, and equally, it should not attempt to include detail that is not relevant to either the spatial or temporal scale of the assessment





Physiologically, only CO<sub>2</sub> form of carbon is of interest: nearly all of carbon content in man comes from the atmosphere via plant and animal products ingested by man (inhalation pathway contributes <1% to the total dose)

	unit	ingestion	inhalation
Daily carbon intake	g C	300	3
Dose conversion factor e	Sv/Bq	$5,8 \times 10^{-10}$	$6,36 \times 10^{-12}$
Effective dose	Sv/yr	14,4 E-6	1,6 E-9

$$F = e \times a^{14}\text{C} \times m \times t$$

**to assess the radiation dose rate (by consumption/ingestion):**

- activity conc in foodstuffs,  **$a^{14}\text{C}$  [Bq/kgC]**
- relevant consumption rates - Dnevni unos ugljika hranom: 0,3 kg, ICRP, 1996
- ICRP ingestion dose coefficients are needed -  $5,8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Sv/Bq}$

$$E = e \times a^{14}\text{C} \times m \times t$$

however, obtaining the consumption data for particular areas may not be simple;

luckily – the specific  $^{14}\text{C}$  activity in all types of (terrestrial) foodstuff is the same

## IAEA TRS472, TECDOC 1616 (2009)

The assumption of full specific activity equilibrium in terrestrial environment is completely satisfactory for  $^{14}\text{C}$  releases to the atmosphere, if, as it is usual, the  $^{14}\text{C}$  is emitted as  $\text{CO}_2$ . This is the only form that is readily taken up by plants, so that active carbon is incorporated into the plant dry matter via photosynthesis at the same rate as stable carbon. Therefore, the  $^{14}\text{C}$  conc in Bq/gC is the same in the plants as it is in the air (terrestrial environment)

$$a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{air}} = a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{plants}} = a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{animals}} = a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{man}} \quad [\text{Bq/kgC}] \text{ specific activity } ^{14}\text{C}$$

$\frac{C_{\text{air}}}{S_{\text{air}}} = \frac{C_{\text{pFW}}}{S_{\text{pFW}}}$ <p>[Bq/m<sup>3</sup>]/[gC/m<sup>3</sup>]= [Bq/kgFW]/[kgC/kgFW]</p> <p>→ [Bq/kgC] = [Bq/kgC]</p>	<p><math>C_{\text{pFW}}</math> – <math>^{14}\text{C}</math> conc in <b>plant</b> [Bq/kg fresh weight]</p> <p><math>S_{\text{pFW}}</math> – fraction of carbon per kg plant FW (kgC/kgFW)</p> <p><math>C_{\text{air}}</math> – <math>^{14}\text{C}</math> conc in air [Bq/m<sup>3</sup>]</p> <p><math>S_{\text{air}}</math> – fraction of carbon in air [kgC/m<sup>3</sup>]</p>
	<p><math>S_{\text{air}}</math> 0.20 g/m<sup>3</sup> = 2 10<sup>-4</sup> kgC/m<sup>3</sup></p> <p><math>S_{\text{pFW}}</math> varies 30 – 410 g/kgFW</p> <p><math>S_{\text{pDW}}</math> 310 – 470 gC/kgDW</p>
<p>animal products</p> $\frac{C_{\text{aFW}}}{S_{\text{aFW}}} = f \times \frac{C_{\text{pFW}}}{S_{\text{pFW}}}$	<p>f fraction of »contaminated« animal feed</p> <p>egg Segg 160 gC/kgFW</p> <p>meat Smeat 200 – 550 gC/kgFW</p>

## Aquatic environment

several carbon pools existing: DIC, DOC (in water column), PIC, POC (mostly in sediments) different aquatic organisms are exposed to different carbon pools

DIC is the dominant carbon pool accessed by most aquatic organisms, taken up by most aquatic plants and animals that are important for human consumption

Moreover, DIC is the form of carbon normally released by NP to aquatic systems, the most common form in the water column, and the most easily measurable form of carbon → thus, it is reasonable to use DIC as the basis for spec. activity (SA) model for fish

$$a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{fish}} = C_{\text{fishFW}} / S_{\text{fishFW}} = a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$$

$$[\text{Bq/kgC}] = [\text{Bq/kgfishFW}] / [\text{gC/kgfishFW}] = [\text{Bq/kgC}]$$

$$S_{\text{fishFW}} = 120 \text{ gC/kgFW}$$

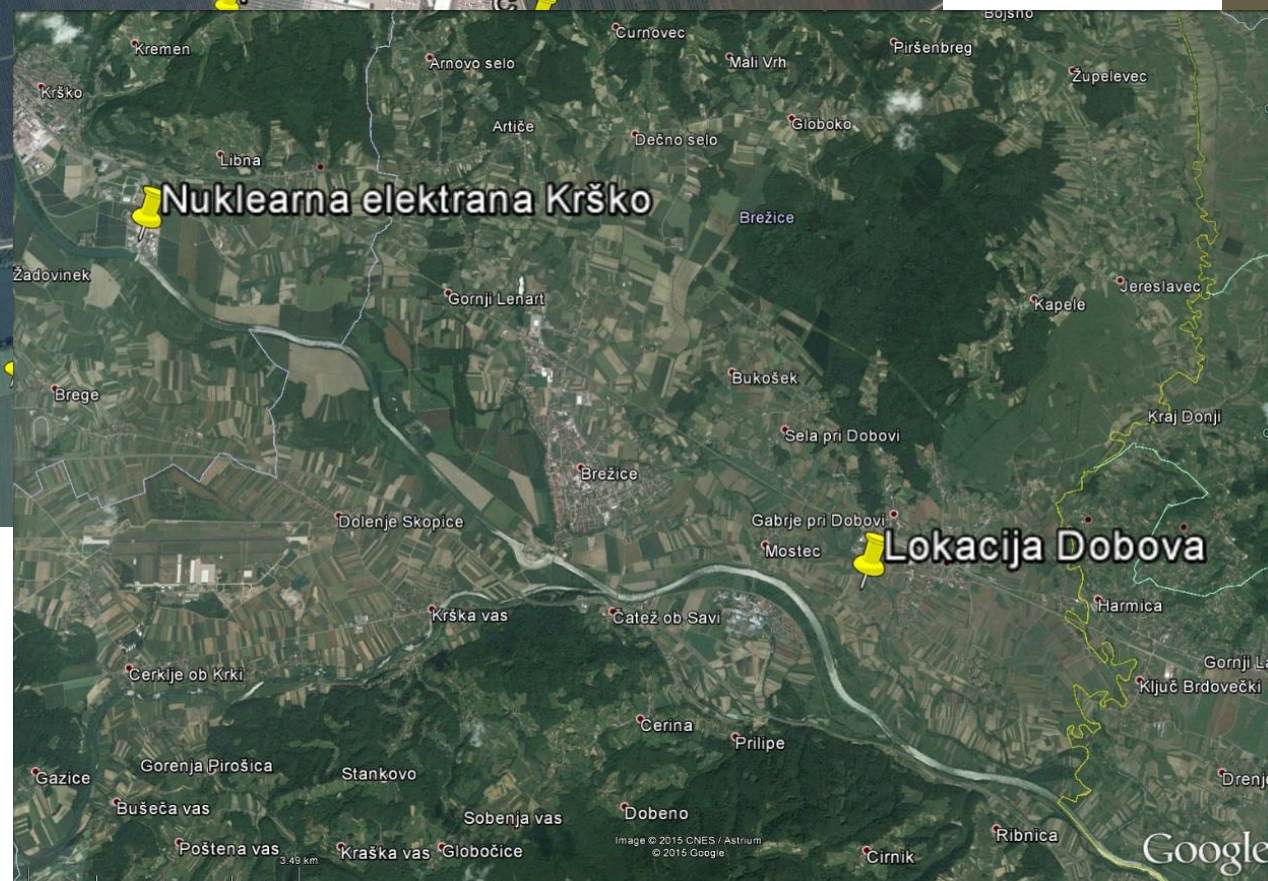
# Monitoring

- općenito – komponente programa monitoringa su: lokacije (outside plant perimeter), environmental media and isotopes/nuclides of interest; monitoring frequency; analytical frequency, assessment of data
- monitoring oko NE obično uključuje: atmosferski CO<sub>2</sub>, biota – s godišnjim periodom rasta, odnosno »integrated samplers covering the vegetation period«;
- tree rings integrate <sup>14</sup>C concentrations during spring-summer-autumn growing season, not during winter; tree rings are not sensitive to short-term increases caused by single releases of <sup>14</sup>C from NPP, but they integrate impacts from both nuclear and fossil CO<sub>2</sub> sources on the local environment, and thus can indicate long-term trends in <sup>14</sup>C biospheric concentrations
- atmosferski CO<sub>2</sub> uzorkuje se u tjednim, dvotjednim, mjesečnim ili dvomjesečnim intervalima; ne može se direktno usporediti s biljkama koje integriraju <sup>14</sup>C za vrijeme vegetacijskog razdoblja; budući da ni emisije ni meteorološki uvjeti nisu konstantni u vremenu, može doći do razlike u srednjim vrijednostima u kraćim i dužim vremenskim razdobljima
- uvijek treba usporediti područje u kojem se očekuje utjecaj NU s područjem bez tog utjecaja (dovoljno udaljeno, bez dodatnih izvora »kontaminacije« - npr. gradovi, industrija)

- oko NEK je od 2006. uspostavljena mreža mjesta uzorkovanja: 2 lokacije za CO<sub>2</sub> unutar NEK, lokacije uz ogradu NEK (unutarnji krug) i vanjski krug, kontrolna točka Dobova 12 km
- uzorkuje se jednogodišnje bilje/plodovi uvijek na istim lokacijama, dva puta godišnje
- usporedba raznih vrsta bilja na istoj lokaciji
- mjerenja  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  u raznim vrstama bilja, te nakon karbonizacije
- Od 2013. u tekućim efluentima
- Jednom ribe

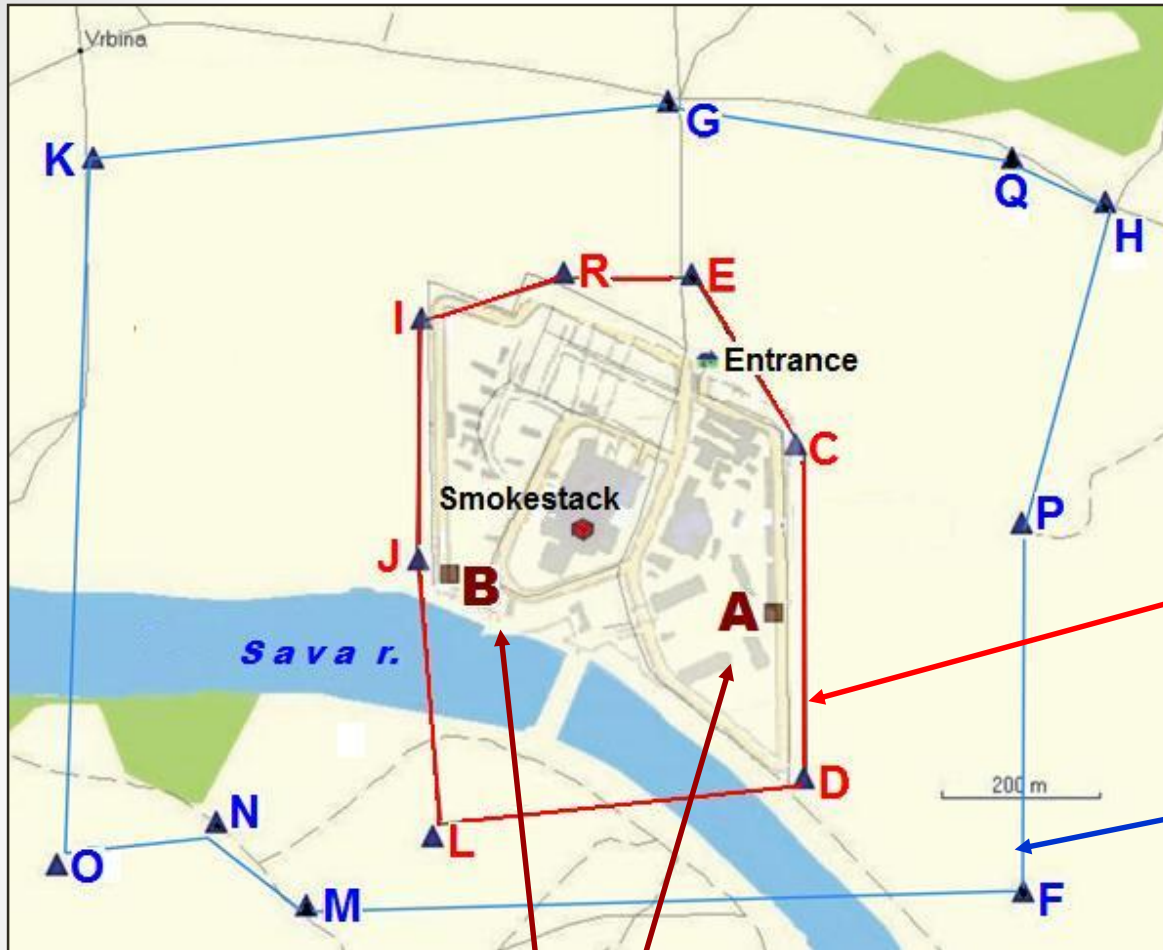


NEK





# Točke uzorkovanja (2006-2015)



**Biološki uzorci**  
(VI/VII, IX/X)

**Unutarnji krug ( $\leq 300$  m)**  
**C, D, E, I, J, L, R**

**Vanjski krug ( $\sim 1$  km):**  
**F, G, H, K, M, N, O, P, Q**

**Atmosferski CO<sub>2</sub>**  
(svaka 2 mjeseca)



**Kontrolna točka Dobova**  
(12 km od NEK)





C



J



I



L



M

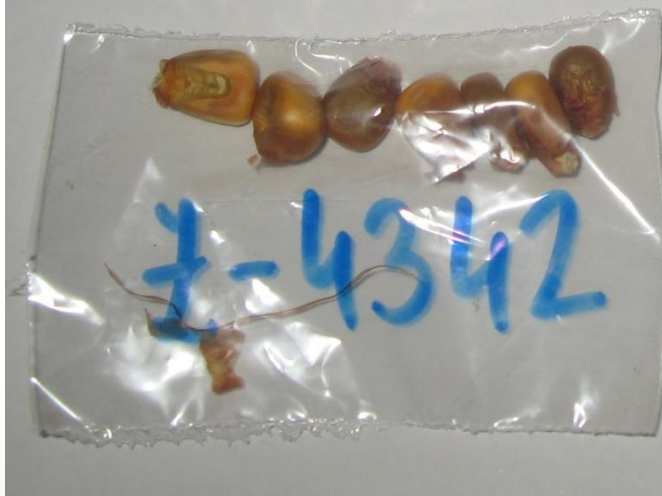


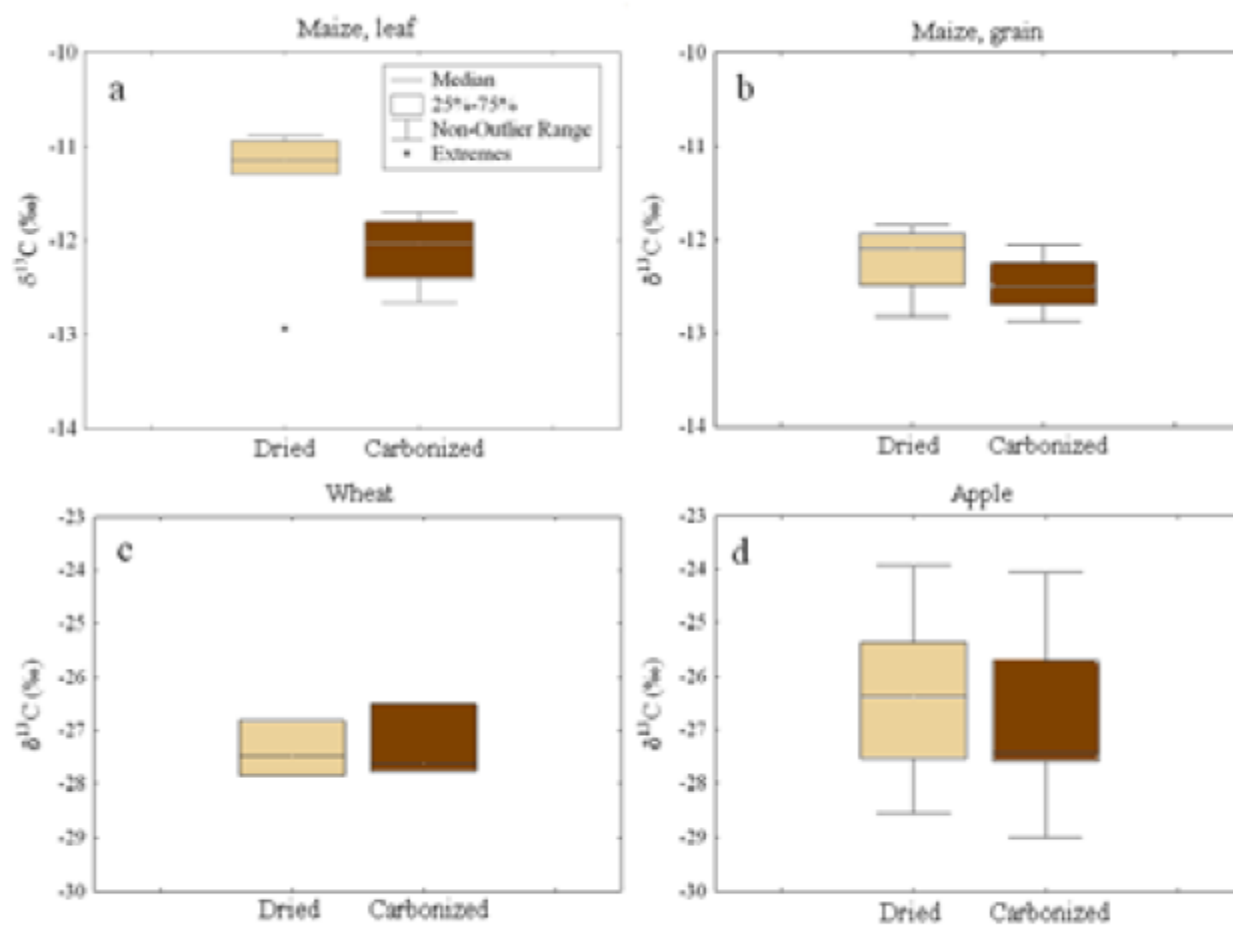
# Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>



Tray with saturated NaOH  
(location **B**)

- ✚ Absorption of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on saturated NaOH during 2-month periods forming Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (shorter period exceptionally during the refuelling process);
- ✚ Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> reacts with HCl and obtained CO<sub>2</sub> is transformed to benzene;
- ✚ Measurement of <sup>14</sup>C activity in liquid scintillation counter (LSC) *Quantulus 1220*.

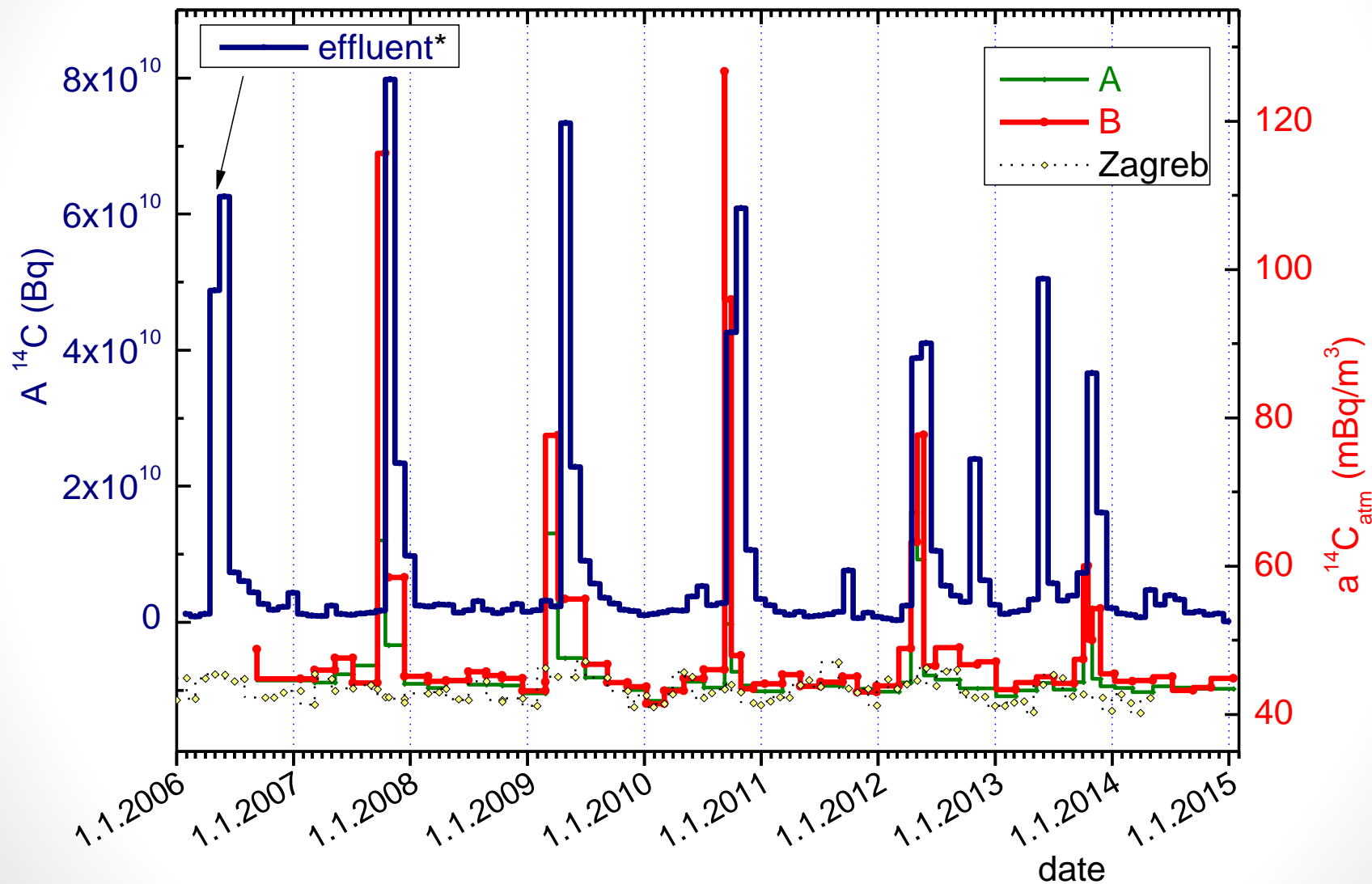




**Figure 5:**  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of dried and carbonized maize leaf (a), maize grain (b), wheat (c) and apple (d) samples.

# Atmosferski CO<sub>2</sub>

Usporedba aktivnosti <sup>14</sup>C na lokacijama A i B s onom u Zagrebu, te s ukupno ispuštenom aktivnošću A u zračnim ispustima

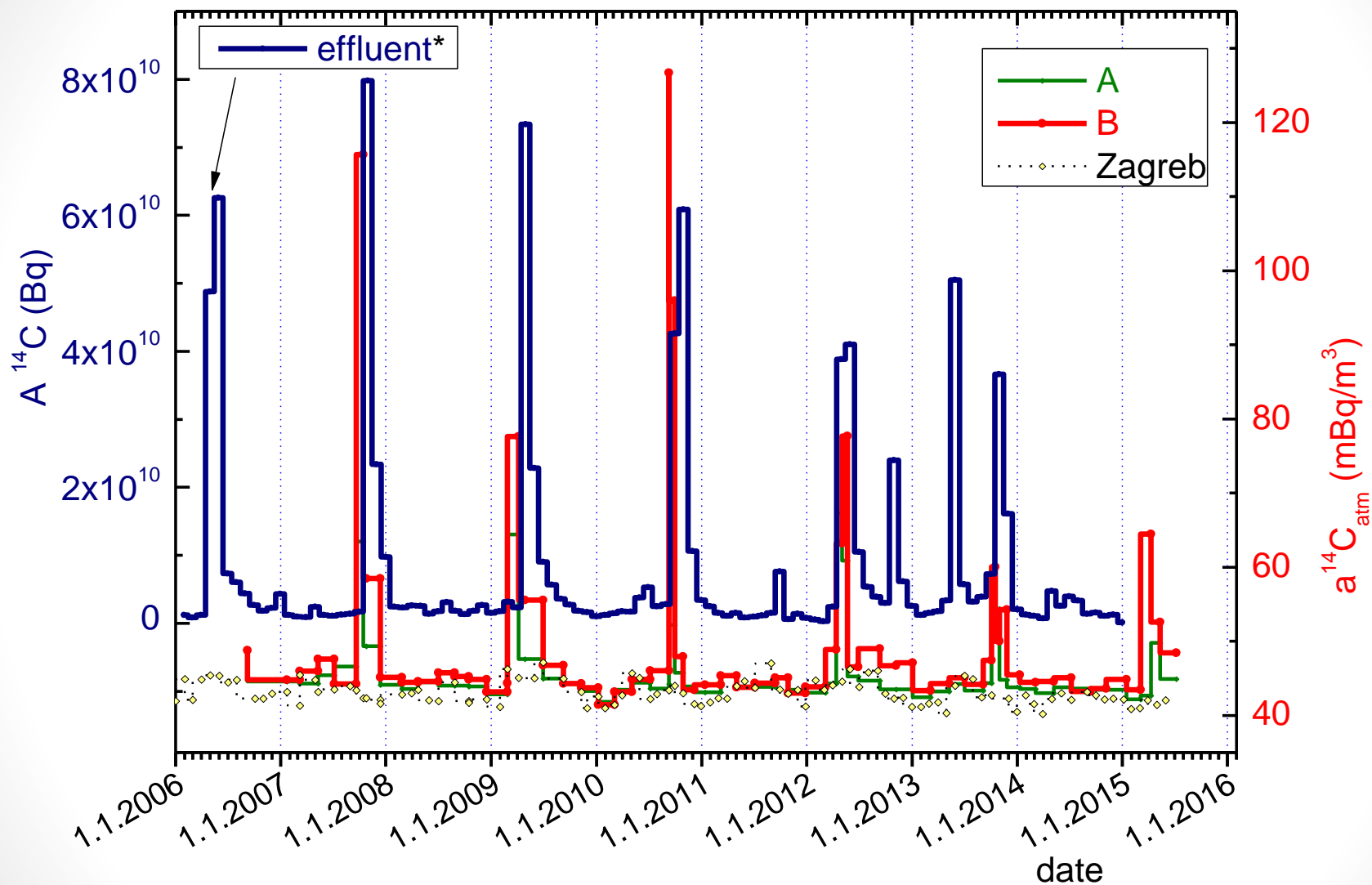


\* measured at J. Stefan Inst., Ljubljana, Slovenia

Prosječne i maksimalne vrijednosti  $a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$  [pMC] na lokacijama NEK-A i NEK-B i u Zagrebu u razdoblju 2006.–2014.

Osjenčane su godine u kojima je proveden remont.

godina	NEK-A		NEK-B		Zagreb	
	srednja vr.	maks.	srednja vr.	maks.	srednja vr.	maks.
2006	nedovoljno podataka	106,6	nedovoljno podataka	116,1	$103,9 \pm 3,4$	108,1
2007	$112,2 \pm 12,4$	151,1	$127,6 \pm 46,0$	275,4	$103,2 \pm 3,5$	108,3
2008	$104,5 \pm 1,1$	105,9	$106,8 \pm 1,1$	109,0	$101,5 \pm 2,5$	105,9
2009	$110,6 \pm 14,1$	153,3	$116,9 \pm 23,9$	184,9	$104,8 \pm 5,1$	112,2
2010	$105,7 \pm 6,4$	124,3	$132,0 \pm 64,3$	301,7	$102,0 \pm 3,6$	108,8
2011	$104,9 \pm 2,1$	108,2	$105,4 \pm 1,9$	108,1	$103,2 \pm 3,8$	112,1
2012	$116,8 \pm 22,5$	160,1	$125,9 \pm 27,7$	185,0	$104,7 \pm 3,8$	110,2
2013	$109,1 \pm 10,0$	129,5	$114,8 \pm 13,4$	143,0	$101,1 \pm 4,0$	108,1
2014	$103,6 \pm 0,7$ N=5	104,3	$105,5 \pm 1,7$ N=6	107,4	$99,2 \pm 2,3$ N=4	101,8



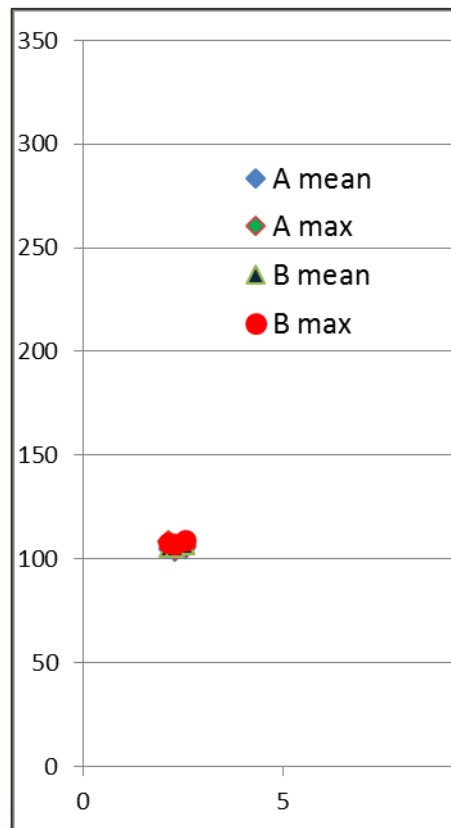
\* measured at J. Stefan Inst., Ljubljana, Slovenia



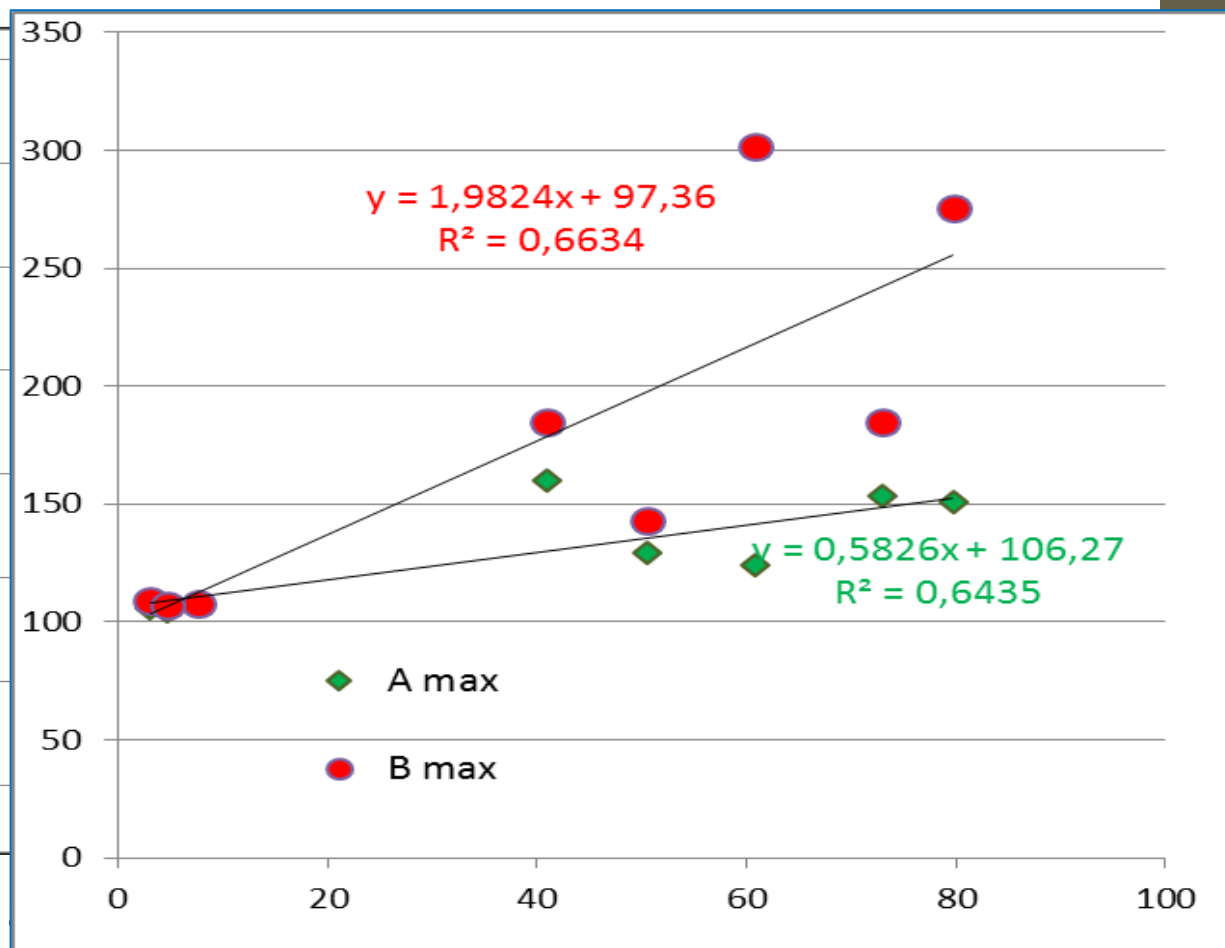
# Atmosferski CO<sub>2</sub>

Usporedba ispuštene <sup>14</sup>C aktivnosti i izmjerene atmosferske <sup>14</sup>C aktivnosti na lokacijama A i B

<sup>14</sup>C aktivnost u atmosferi [pMC]



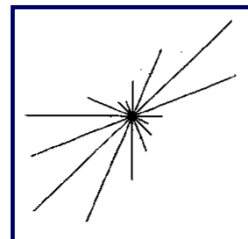
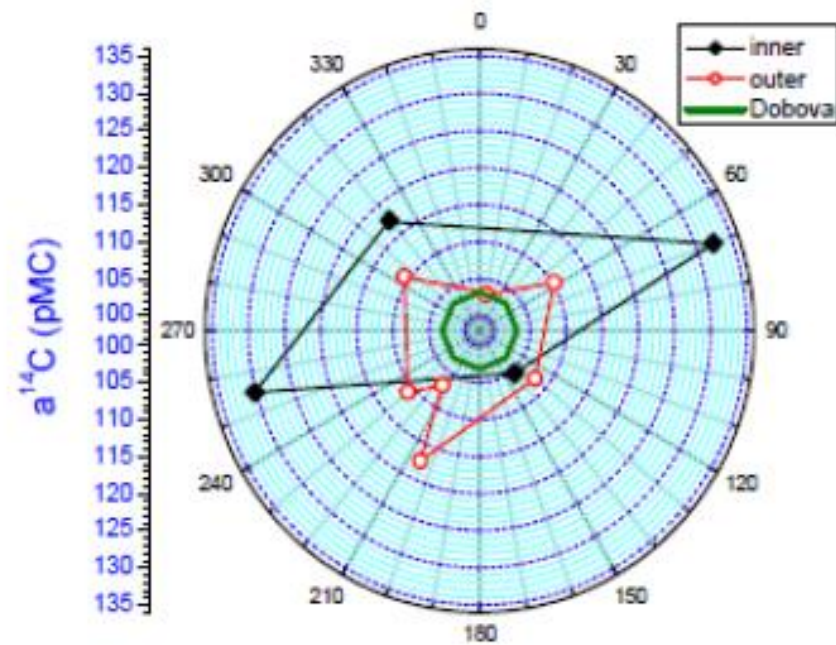
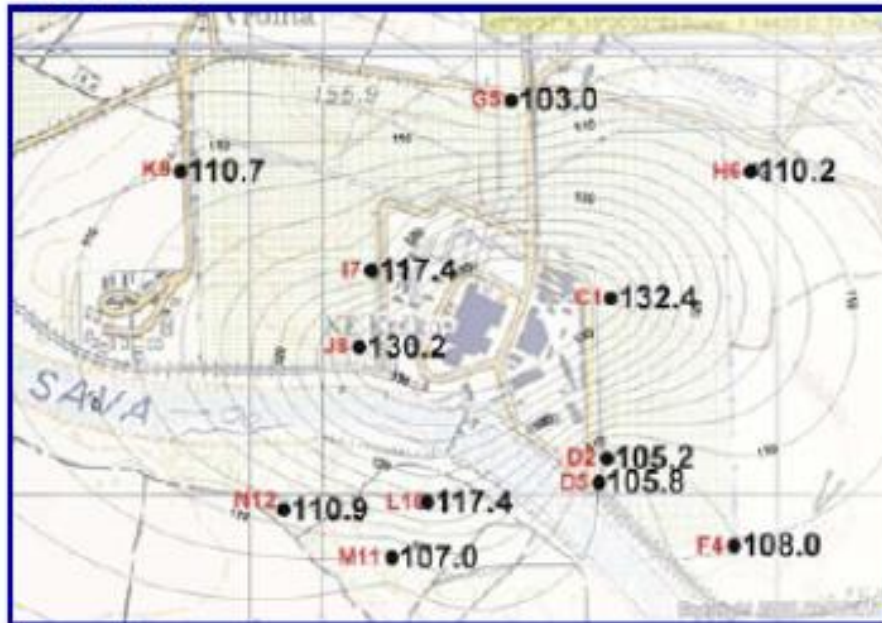
Ukupna godišnja <sup>14</sup>C zračnim ispustima [x E10 Bq]

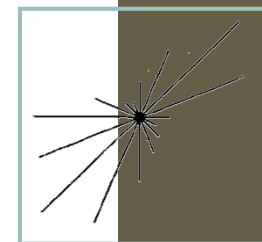
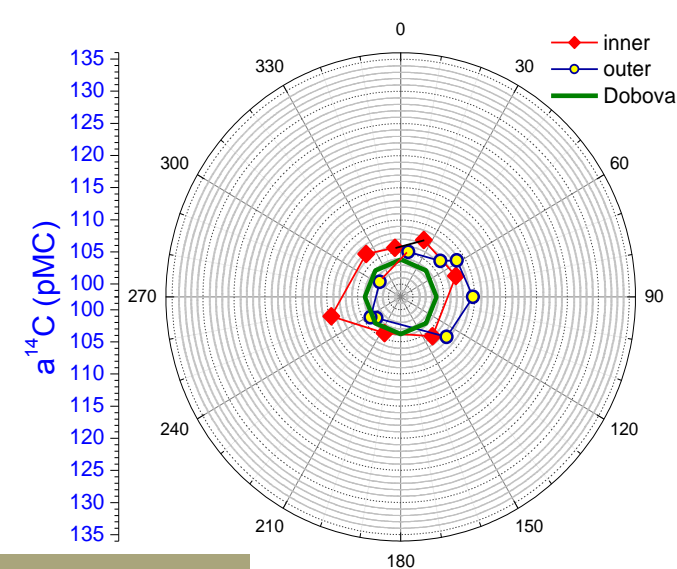
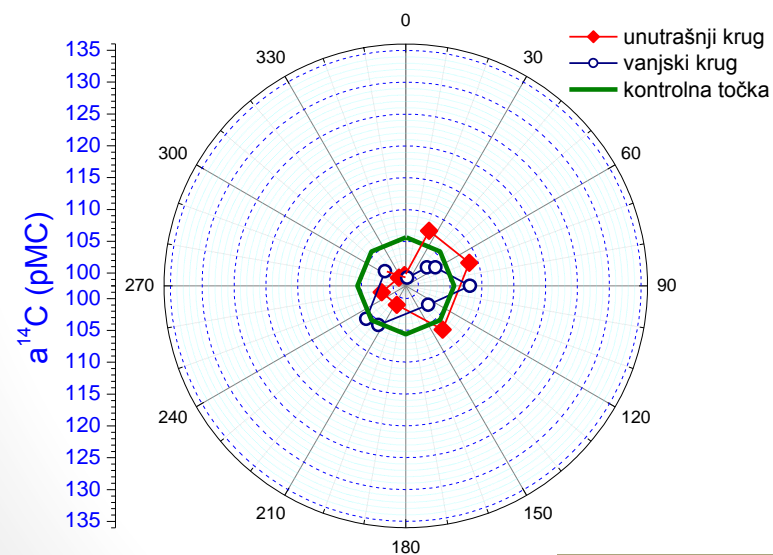
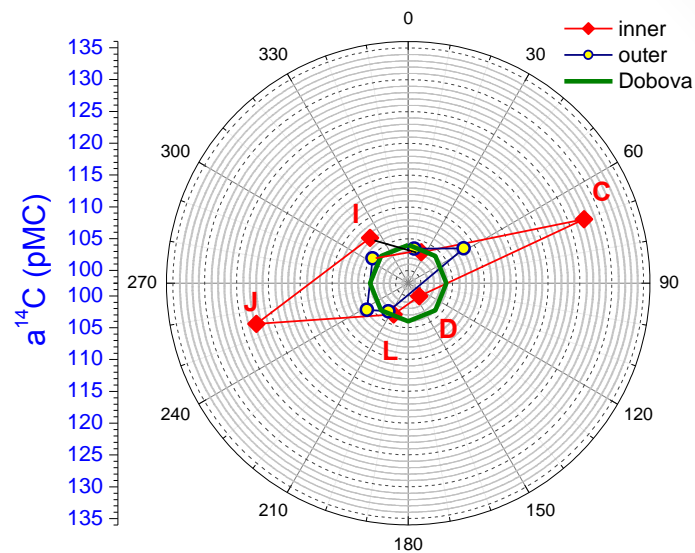
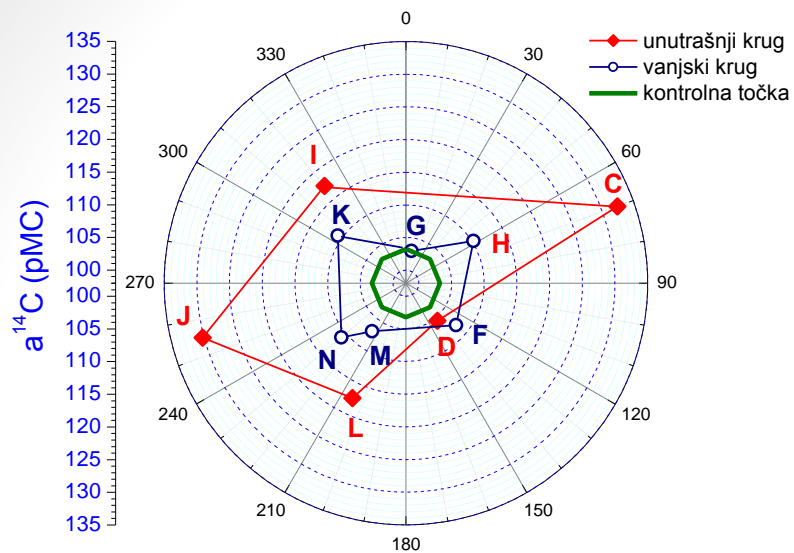


Najviša mjesečna <sup>14</sup>C aktivnost u zračnim ispustima [x E9 Bq]

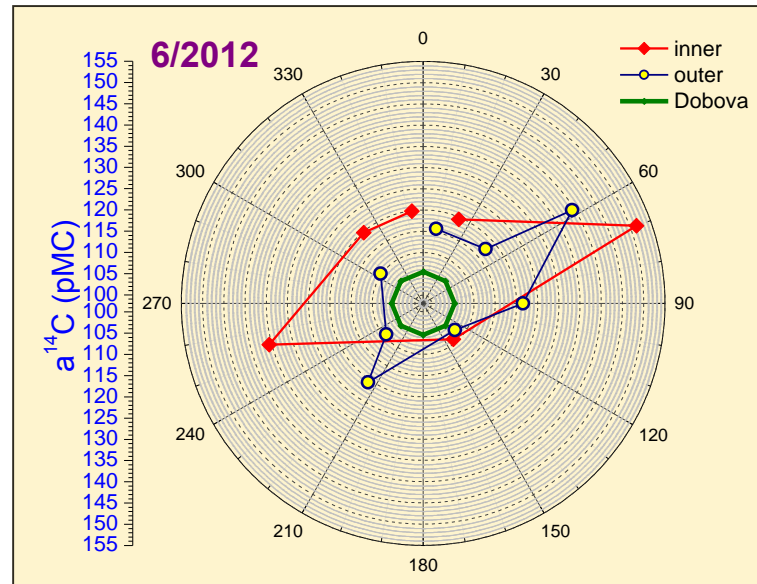
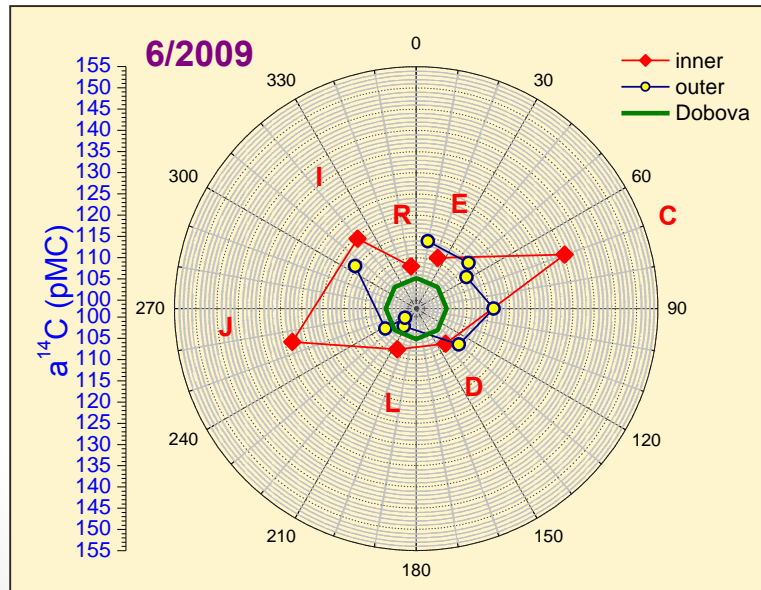
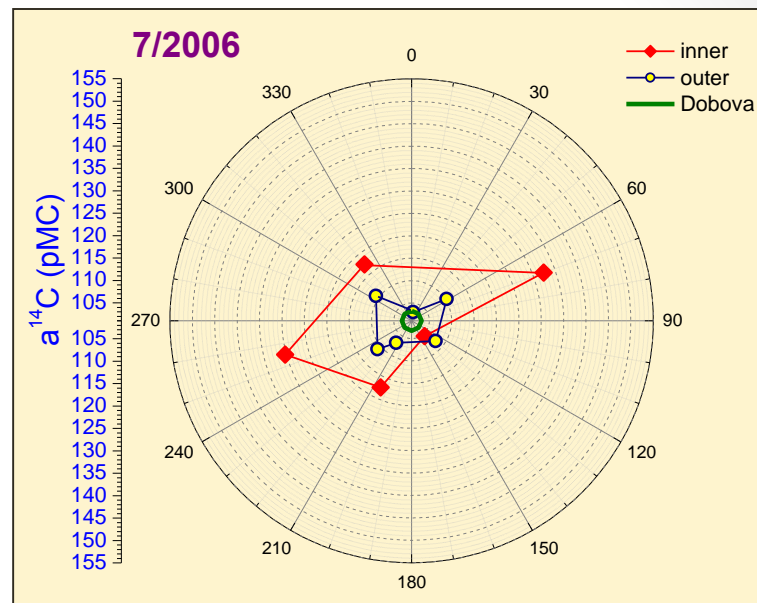
# $^{14}\text{C}$ u biološkim uzorcima, NEK prostorna raspodjela

VII/2006

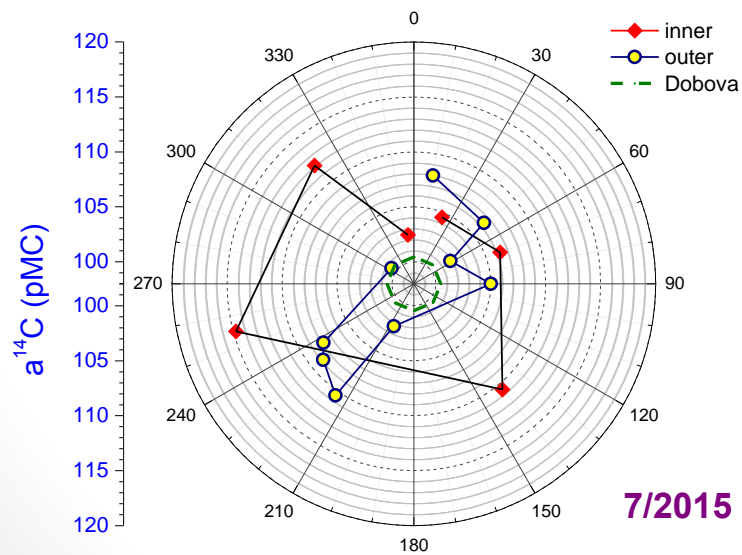
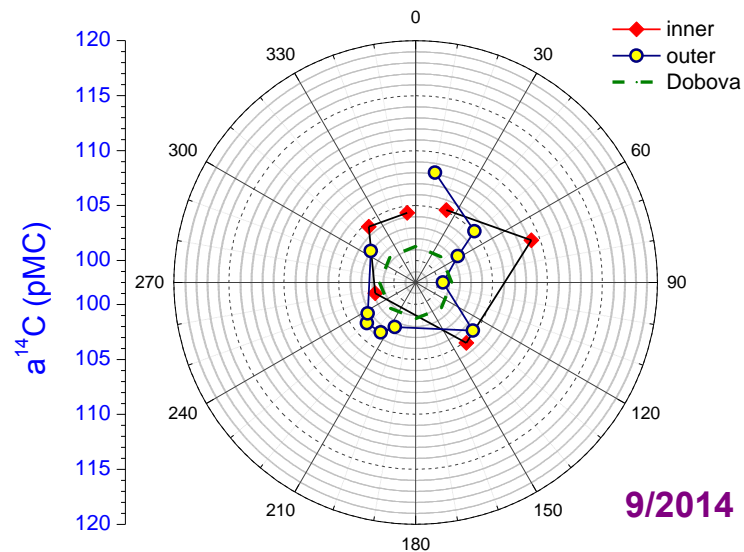
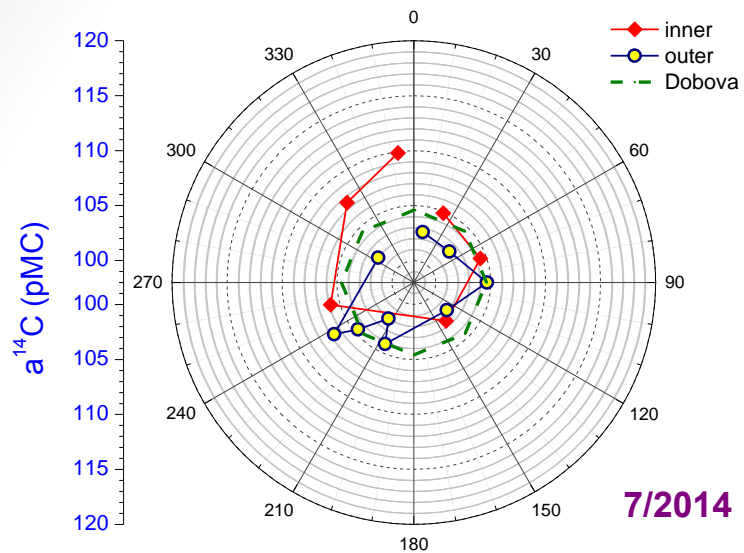




# Polarni diagrami aktivnosti $^{14}\text{C}$ bioloških uzoraka – ljetno uzorkovanje nakon proljetnog remonta, 2006, 2009, 2012





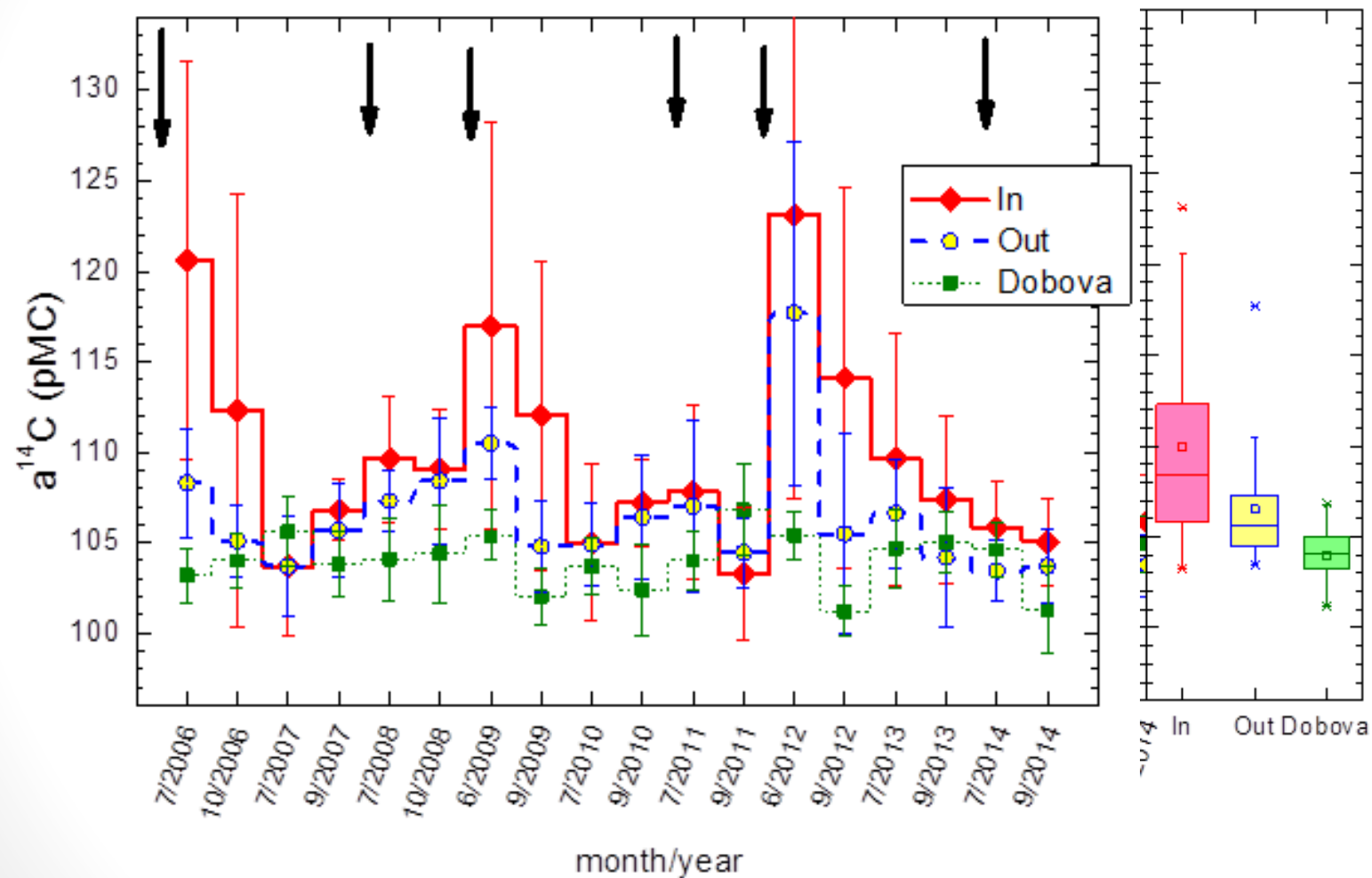


Nakon proljetnog remonta 2015  
U atm  $\text{CO}_2$  izmjerene su niže  $^{14}\text{C}$   
aktivnosti nego tijekom prethodnih

Prosječne vrijednosti  $a^{14}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$  [pMC] u biljkama u unutarnjem i vanjskom krugu i na kontrolnoj točki, 2006.–2014. Osjenčano: nakon remonta.

Datum sakupljanja mjesec/godina	$a^{14}\text{C}$ (pMC) unutarnji krug	$a^{14}\text{C}$ (pMC) vanjski krug	$a^{14}\text{C}$ (pMC) kontrolna točka
07 / 2006	120.6 ± 11.0	108.3 ± 3.0	103.2 ± 1.5
10 / 2006	112.3 ± 12.0	105.1 ± 2.0	104.0 ± 1.5
07 / 2007	103.7 ± 3.9	103.7 ± 2.8	105.6 ± 1.9
09 / 2007	106.8 ± 1.7	105.7 ± 2.6	103.8 ± 1.8
07 / 2008	109.6 ± 3.5	107.3 ± 1.7	104.1 ± 2.3
10 / 2008	109.1 ± 3.3	108.4 ± 3.5	104.4 ± 2.7
06 / 2009	117.0 ± 11.2	110.5 ± 2.0	105.4 ± 1.4
09 / 2009	112.0 ± 8.5	104.8 ± 2.5	102.0 ± 1.6
07 / 2010	105.0 ± 4.3	104.9 ± 2.3	103.7 ± 1.6
09 / 2010	107.2 ± 2.4	106.4 ± 3.4	102.4 ± 2.5
07 / 2011	107.8 ± 4.8	107.0 ± 4.8	104.0 ± 1.6
09 / 2011	103.2 ± 3.6	104.4 ± 1.9	106.8 ± 2.5
06 / 2012	123.1 ± 15.7	117.7 ± 9.5	105.4 ± 1.3
09 / 2012	114.1 ± 10.5	105.5 ± 5.5	101.2 ± 1.4
07 / 2013	109.6 ± 6.9	106.6 ± 3.0	104.7 ± 2.1
09 / 2013	107.4 ± 4.6	104.2 ± 3.8	105.0 ± 1.6
07 / 2014	105.8 ± 2.6	103.4 ± 1.7	104.6 ± 1.6
09 / 2014	105.1 ± 2.4	103.7 ± 2.0	101.3 ± 2.4
srednja vrijednost	<b>110,0 ± 5,5</b>	<b>106,5 ± 3,3</b>	<b>104,0 ± 1,5</b>

## Srednje vrijednosti po sezonama



## Na istoj lokaciji različiti uzorci

Dobova	$a^{14}\text{C}$ [pMC]	$\sigma$
Kukuruz	102,9	1,8
Pšenica	103,1	1,8
zob	103,7	1,8

Lokacija D	$a^{14}\text{C}$ [pMC]	$\sigma$
jabuka	105,2	1,7
Lišće grma	105,8	2,4

Lokacija F	$a^{14}\text{C}$ [pMC]	$\sigma$
jabuka	102,3	2,1
kukuruz	102,7	2,1

Lokacija J	$a^{14}\text{C}$ [pMC]	$\sigma$
jabuka	100,6	2,5
Jabuka, druga vrsta	101,5	2,5
Poljsko cvijeće	103,8	2,6



# Procjena efektivne doze

Godišnja doza uslijed prisutnosti  $^{14}\text{C}$  u hrani:

$$E = e \times a^{14}\text{C} \times m \times t$$

$t$  365 dana

$m$  masa ugljika uneseno dnevno hranom (0,3 kg, ICRP, 1996)  
100 kg C godišnje

$a^{14}\text{C}$  mjerena aktivnost  $^{14}\text{C}$  (Bq/kg C)

$e$  ingestijski dozni koeficijent za  $^{14}\text{C}$  (očekivana efektivna doza po jediničnoj aktivnosti  $^{14}\text{C}$   $5,8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Sv/Bq}$  (ICRP, 1996)

## Pregled prirodnih doza

**Ukupna:** 1220  $\mu\text{Sv}$ , iz svih prirodnih izvora

**Ingestija:** ~300  $\mu\text{Sv}$ , najveći doprinos  $^{40}\text{K}$ ,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ ,  $^{90}\text{Sr}$

**$^{14}\text{C}$  doza :** ~15  $\mu\text{Sv}$

Povećanje ekvivalentne doze  $^{14}\text{C}$  u odnosu na prirodnu  $^{14}\text{C}$  dozu izmjerenu na kontrolnoj točki (Dobova) i povećanje ukupne doze u odnosu na prirodnu dozu u našim krajevima (1,22 mSv).

Godina	$a^{14}\text{C}$ NEK * (pMC)	$a^{14}\text{C}$ Dobova (pMC)	Doza $^{14}\text{C}$ NEK ( $\mu\text{Sv}$ )	Doza $^{14}\text{C}$ Dobova ( $\mu\text{Sv}$ )	Povećanje doze $^{14}\text{C}$ (%)	Povećanje ukupne doze (%)
<b>2006</b>	$111,6 \pm 8,3$	$103,5 \pm 1,1$	$15,04 \pm 0,33$	$14,86 \pm 0,16$	<b>1,29</b>	<b>0,0159</b>
<b>2007</b>	$105,0 \pm 2,6$	$104,7 \pm 1,3$	$15,03 \pm 0,22$	$15,03 \pm 0,19$	<b>0,04</b>	<b>0,0005</b>
<b>2008</b>	$108,8 \pm 2,6$	$104,3 \pm 1,8$	$15,08 \pm 0,28$	$14,97 \pm 0,26$	<b>0,71</b>	<b>0,0088</b>
<b>2009</b>	$110,8 \pm 7,1$	$103,8 \pm 1,1$	$15,07 \pm 0,30$	$14,90 \pm 0,16$	<b>1,11</b>	<b>0,0137</b>
<b>2010</b>	$105,8 \pm 2,7$	$103,0 \pm 1,5$	$14,85 \pm 0,24$	$14,78 \pm 0,22$	<b>0,45</b>	<b>0,0055</b>
<b>2011</b>	$105,6 \pm 3,8$	$105,4 \pm 1,5$	$15,13 \pm 0,10$	$15,13 \pm 0,18$	<b>0,03</b>	<b>0,0004</b>
<b>2012</b>	$115 \pm 10$	$103,2 \pm 1,0$	$15,10 \pm 0,25$	$14,81 \pm 0,15$	<b>1,92</b>	<b>0,0233</b>
<b>2013</b>	$106,8 \pm 3,5$	$104,8 \pm 1,3$	$15,10 \pm 0,09$	$15,05 \pm 0,19$	<b>0,32</b>	<b>0,0039</b>
<b>2014</b>	$104,3 \pm 2,2$	$102,9 \pm 1,4$	$14,81 \pm 0,10$	$14,77 \pm 0,19$	<b>0,22</b>	<b>0,0027</b>

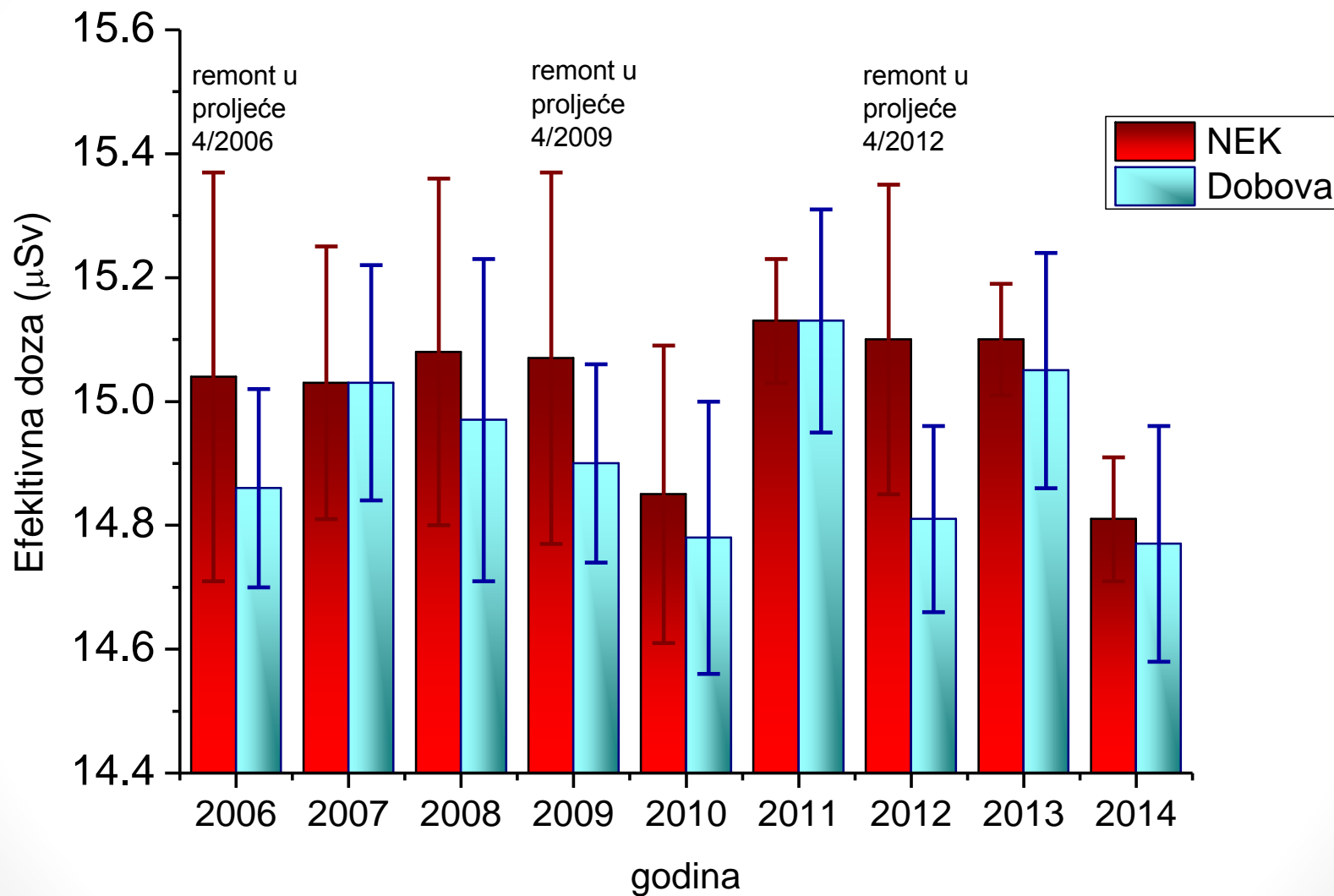
model prehrane za okolicu NEK:

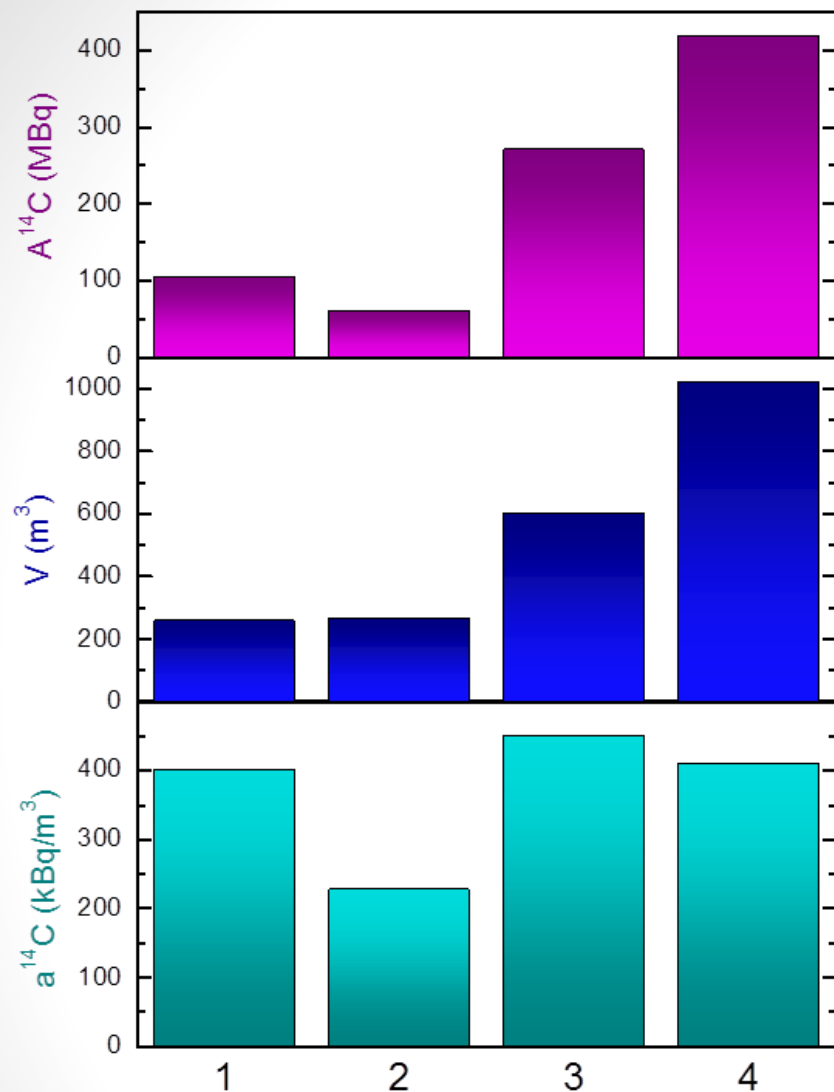
2 mjeseca iz okolice NEK, sve lokacije u prosjeku, ostalih 10 mjeseci iz Dobove

Prosječne vr. 15,02  
razlika 0 – 0,29  $\mu\text{Sv}$ ,

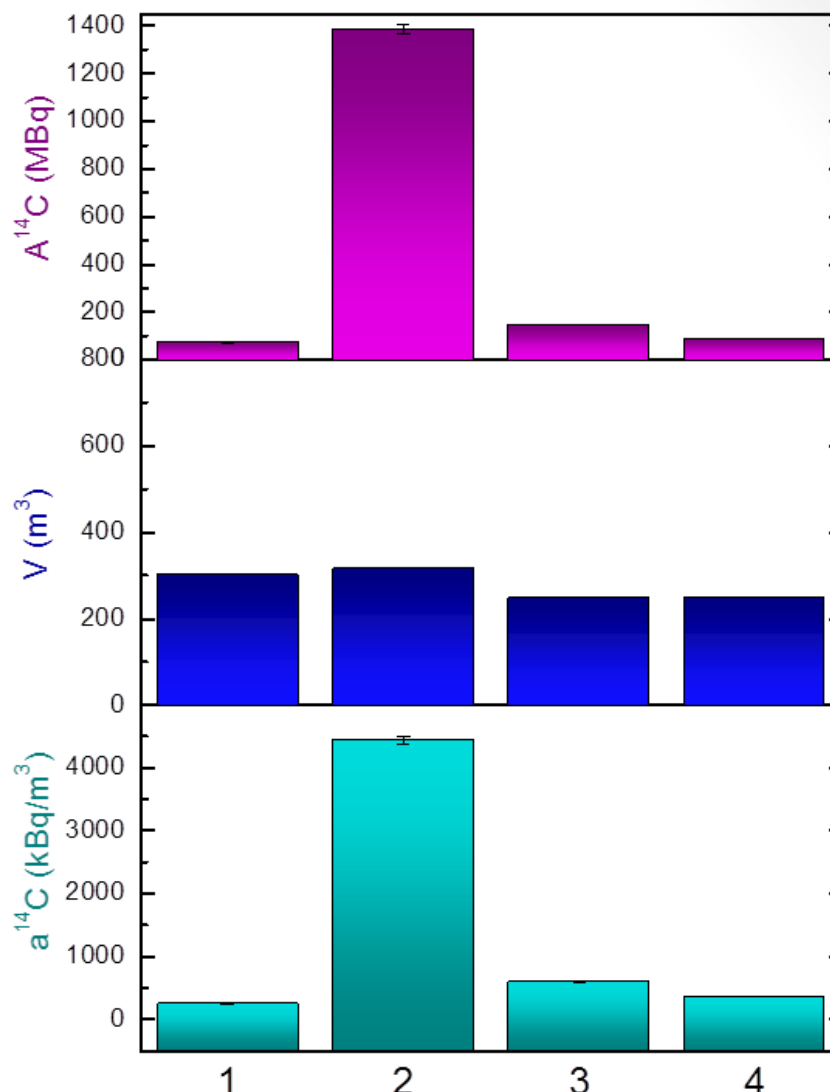
14,92  $\mu\text{Sv}$   
prosjeak 0,10  $\mu\text{Sv}$

## Usporedba efektivnih godišnjih doza zbog ingestije, samo $^{14}\text{C}$



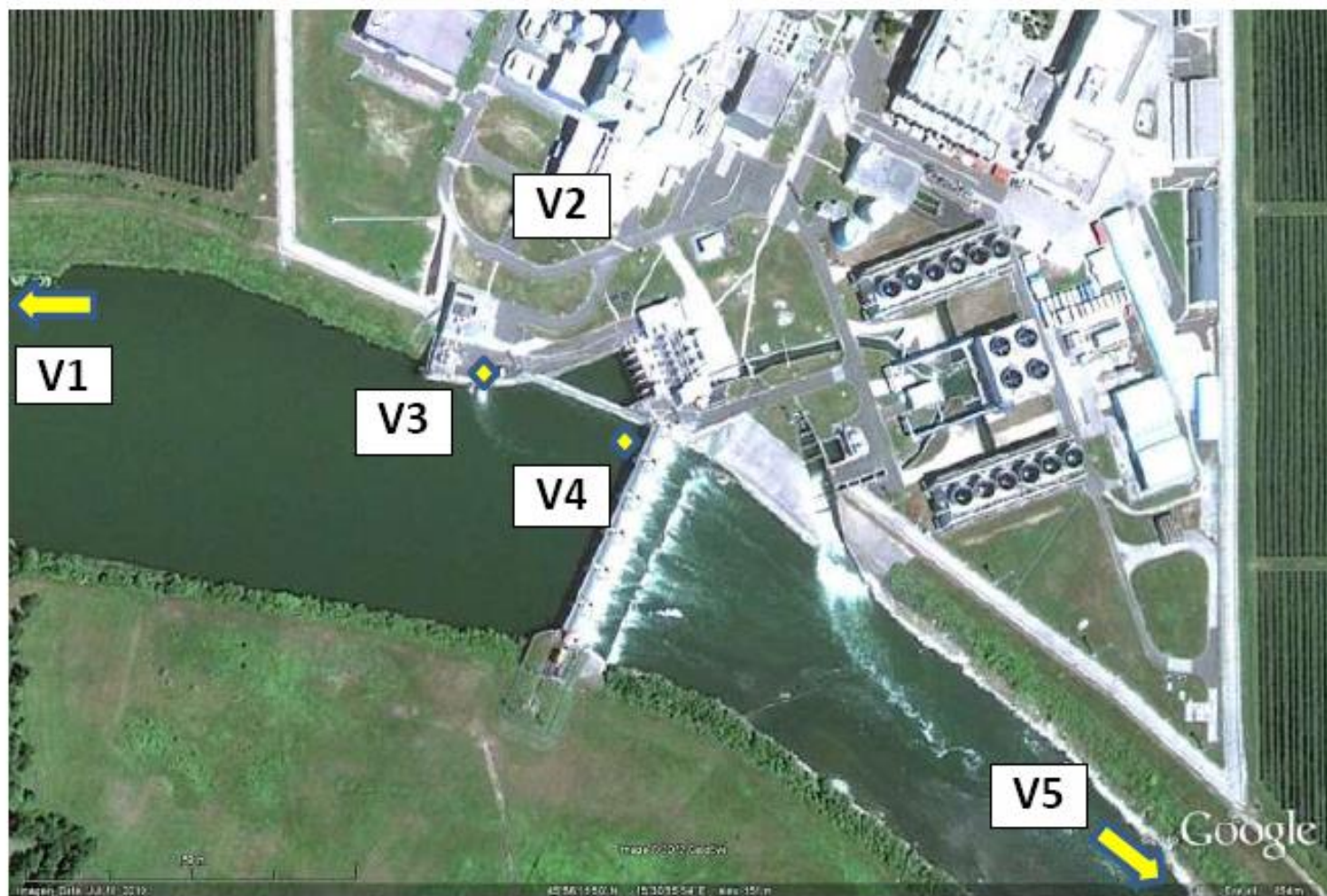


kvartal 2013.

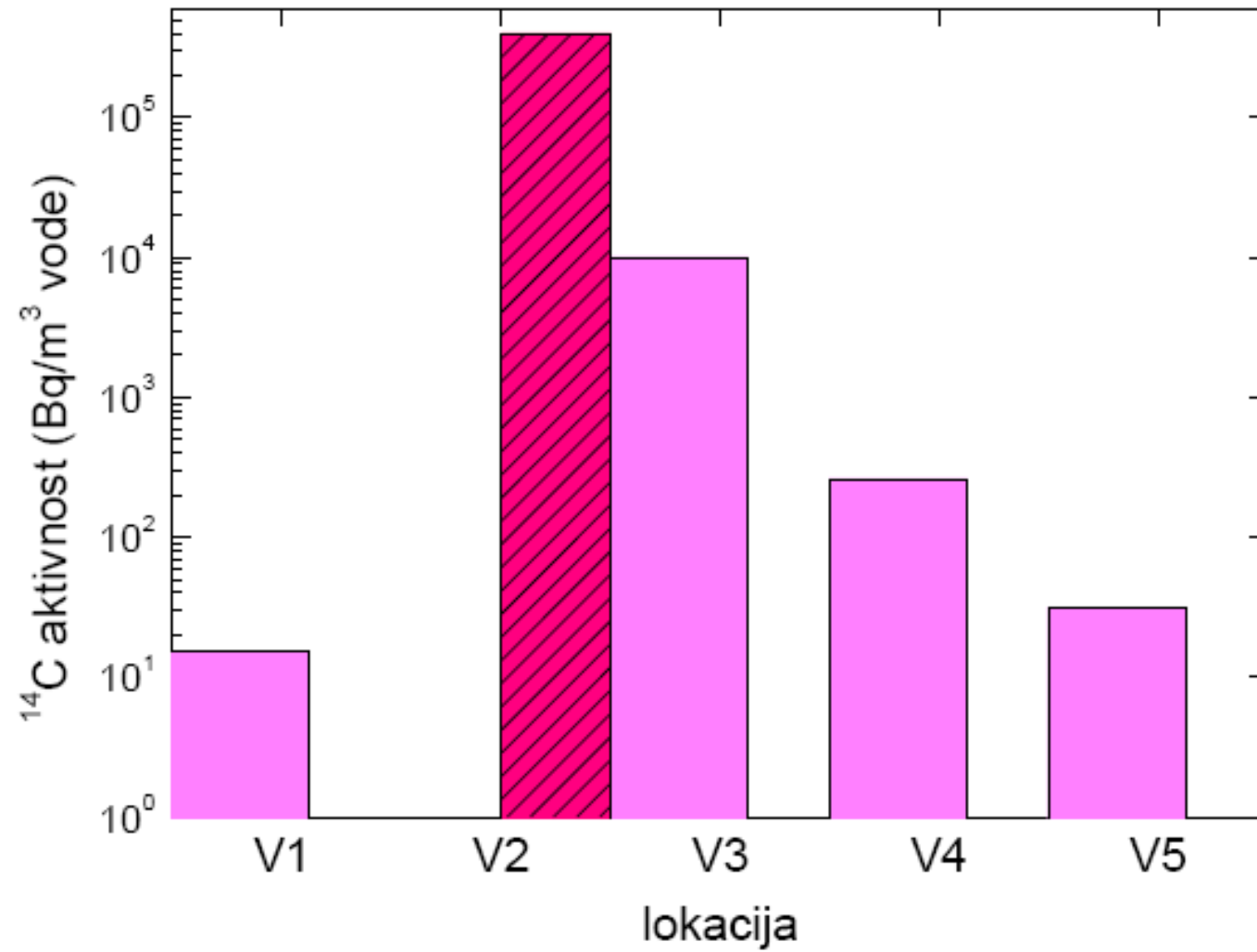


kvartal 2014.

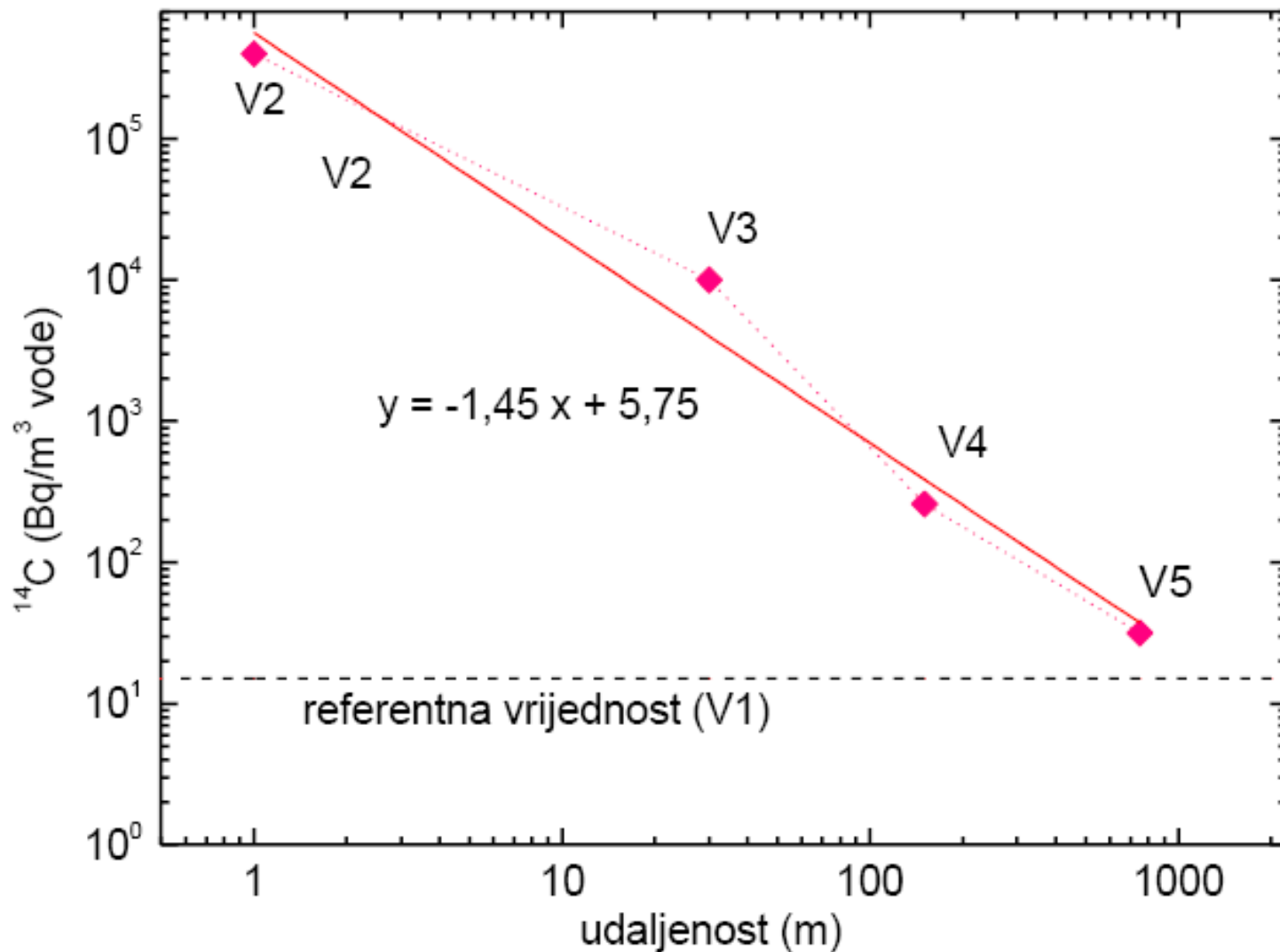
Ukupna godišnja ispuštena aktivnost  $^{14}\text{C}$  u tekućim ispustima  
 2013. - 852 MBq  
 2014. - 1693 MBq (1,7E9 Bq)



28.3.2013.  $^{14}\text{C}$  u Savi i WMT



Procjena udaljenosti na kojoj se  $^{14}\text{C}$  aktivnost rijeke vrati na "prirodnu" – 1400 m



## Riba (2014, jednokratno)

Oznaka uzorka	Naziv uzorka	$a^{14}\text{C}$ (pMC)	$a^{14}\text{C}$ (Bq/kgC)	$A_s^{14}\text{C}$ (Bq/kg suhe tvari) <sup>1</sup>	$A_r^{14}\text{C}$ (Bq/kg ribe) <sup>2</sup>
<b>Z-5473 B1191</b>	Riba – klen iz Save, Jesenice, JE06-14R1	$98,7 \pm 0,8$	$223,0 \pm 1,8$	52,10	12,17
<b>Z-5474 B1192</b>	Riba – deverika iz Save, Jesenice, JE06-14R2	$95,9 \pm 0,8$	$216,7 \pm 1,8$	54,86	13,89

NEK riba (2014) 1 kgFW = 72 % voda + 28 % DW

(IAEA TRS472: 72-75% vode)

karbonizacija app. 25% od suhe tvari (IAEA TRS472: 40 – 47%)

➔  $B = 12,2 \text{ (13,9) Bq/kgFW} / 11.3 \text{ E-3 Bq/L} = 1070 \text{ (1230) L/kg}$



## **Neki drugi rezultati monitoringa $^{14}\text{C}$ u okolišu nuklearnih elektrana**

## Cernavoda – CANDU reaktor 2 × 700 MWe

fish  $^{14}\text{C}$  spec activity  $327 \pm 26$  (range 240 – 430) Bq/kgC (144 pMC)

vegetable average  $338 \pm 27$  (range 240 – 470) Bq/kgC (150 pMC)

no significant difference between different types of vegetables

background level 246 Bq/kgC (109 pMC)

maximum  $^{14}\text{C}$  in grass at 400 m  $308 \pm 5$  Bq/kgC (136 pMC)

From: **Popoaca et al, JEPE 2014; Olarin 2001**

## Sellafield – nuclear fuel reprocessing plant

aquatic  $^{14}\text{C}$  discharges are almost exclusively in the form of DIC

liquid marine discharges (as inorganic C incorporated into DIC) to the Irish Sea,

1984 – 1993                  average 1.78 TBq/yr

1994                          8,17 TBq/yr

1994 – 2013                  average 8.13 TBq/yr

NEK liquid discharges 2013 0.8 GBq, 2014 1.7 GBq

(3-4 reda veličine manje ispuštene  $^{14}\text{C}$  aktivnosti!!)


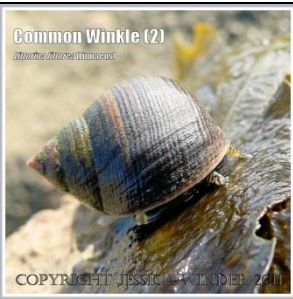

measured  $^{14}\text{C}$  in seaweed samples (annually collected)

range 310 (1992) – 1200 (1995, 1996, 1998) Bq/kgC (137 – 530 pMC),

correlated with discharged  $^{14}\text{C}$  activity (1.5 – 12 TBq)

mussel shell  $^{14}\text{C}$  activity responds in accordance with the discharge activity during the growth period

**From: Cook et al (2004, JRNC); Tierney et al (2016, J Env rad)**

		
mussel – dagnja	winkle – nanara, pužić	cockle – (bivalve) srčanka

$^{14}\text{C}$  activity in whole shells follows the trends

**mussel 917 Bq/kgC** (dagnja, feed by phytoplankton that is feeded by DIC exclusively) → **winkles 640 Bq/kgC** (can use atmospheric carbon) → **cockles 495 Bq/kgC** (live in sediment at 5-10 cm depth, may use organic matter of lower  $^{14}\text{C}$  act from sediment to shell formation), that reflects the feeding habits of shells

## **Povinec, Radiocarbon 2015, ARI 2008, JenvRad2009**

- impact of NPP close to the statistical limit, negligible contribution to the radiation dose delivered to local inhabitants (by app. 3 order of magnitude below dose limit of 1 mSv/yr)

## **Yim, 2006**

- individual effective dose rates (food production and consumption patter for rural setting) 4  $\mu\text{Sv/yr}$  (BWR) and 2.3  $\mu\text{Sv/yr}$  (PWR)
- this corresponds to the fatal cancer level in the order of  $10^{-7}$  per year, this is 3 orders of magnitude lower than the risk from natural background radiation ( $10^{-4}$  /yr) and is a very small fraction of regulatory dose limit for the public

## S. Roussel-Debet, J Env Rad 2006

- 10 years of measurement of  $^{14}\text{C}$  around French nuclear power plant sites
- zone influenced and zones not influenced by gaseous releases
- discharges have a very slight impact on the  $^{14}\text{C}$  level – about 3 Bq/kgC increase in the influenced area, background level  $242 \pm 6$  Bq/kgC
- near-negligible increase in dose, on average  $< 0.1 \mu\text{Sv/yr}$
- $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values about -27 ‰ in both influenced and non-influenced areas
- all models of  $^{14}\text{C}$  transfer in the environment are based on the principle of isotopic equilibrium – specific activity of the carbon (expressed in Bq/kgC) in plants is the same as in the atmosphere and this model is valid for all trophic levels
- the effective annual dose – influenced zone  $1.41 \cdot 10^{-5}$  Sv ( $14.1 \mu\text{Sv/yr}$ ), non-influenced zone –  $1.39 \cdot 10^{-5}$  Sv ( $13.9 \mu\text{Sv/yr}$ ), a negligible increase of  $0.18 \mu\text{Sv/yr}$  (1.3 %) can be attributed to the effect of gaseous releases